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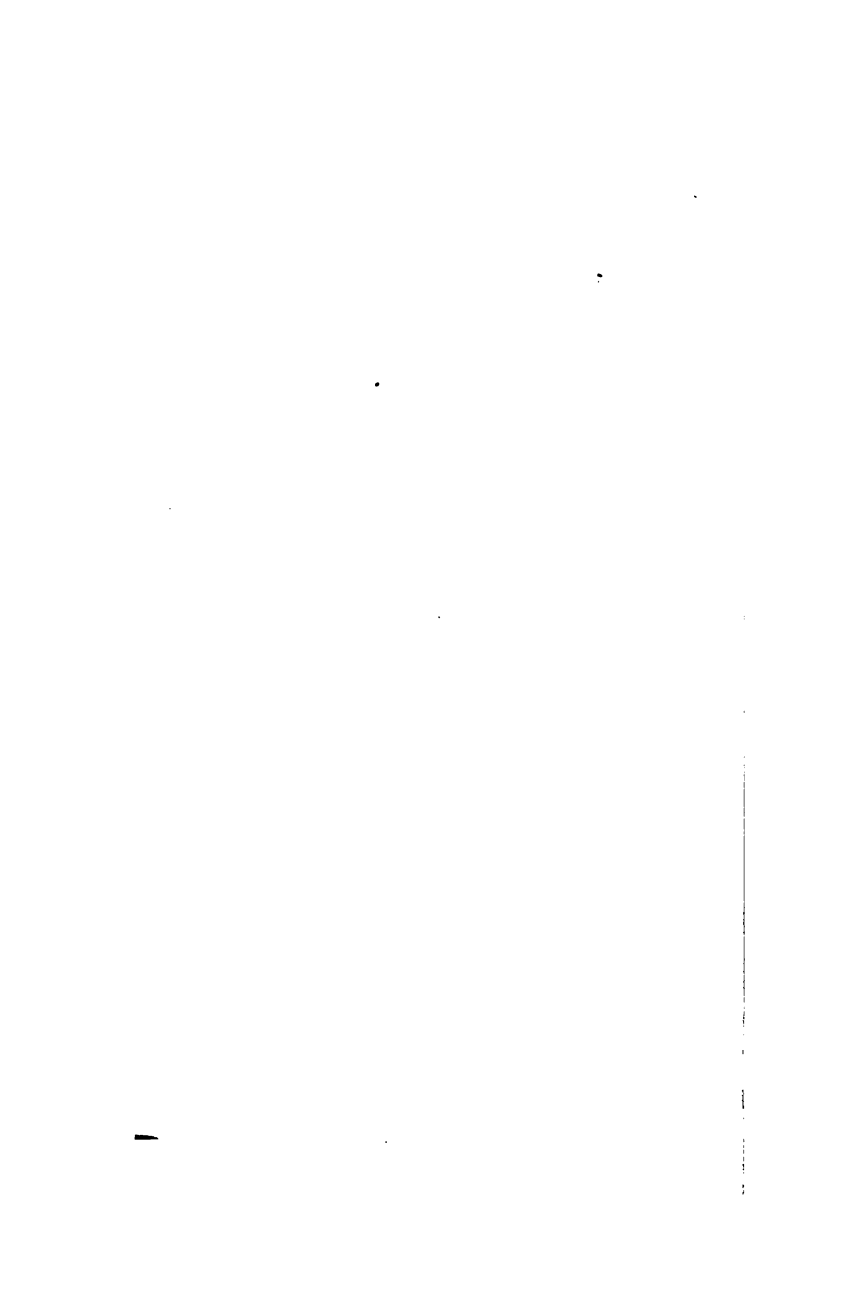
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# **Walter Scott's HISTORY OF FRANCE.**

IN A SERIES OF  
TALES OF A GRANDFATHER  
To his Grandson,

ABRIDGED, AND CONTINUED,  
FROM THE REIGN OF CHARLES VI., TO THE  
PRESENT DAY,

By P. Sadler,  
Author of several literary works.

**FOR THE USE OF SCHOOLS.**

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**Walter Scott's**  
**HISTORY**  
**OF FRANCE.**



own; yet the task does not seem to me impracticable. It is only to be just, and not endeavour to illustrate our own reputation by calumniating that of our neighbours.

Whether the pen of the distinguished author of *Waverley* has been sufficiently impartial in portraying the events of french history, in the *TALES OF A GRANDFATHER*, may be seen in the original work.

In this abridgement I have taken the liberty, without disguising any of the circumstances, to soften such expressions as appeared to me harsh and unjust; and I claim the right of so doing. I imagine that I have acquired it by the experience of many years residence in France; and by the opportunities I have had of examining the french character in all classes of life. Their most general fault is their fickleness: it appears in fact to be national, and the nation has often paid dearly for it.

Walter Scott's History of this celebrated nation terminates at the reign of Charles VI. 1480. I have continued it, giving a brief, and impartial detail of the events from that time to the present day; in language adapted to the intelligence of youth, and calculated at the same time to offer, to the rising generation of France, the means of learning a foreign language while they are familiarizing themselves with the history of their own country.

The close of the eighteenth century, and the beginning of the nineteenth have been extremely fertile in political events; in which France and England have particularly distinguished themselves, by their determined and successful rivalry.

It has cost me no efforts to narrate those circumstances with perfect impartiality; and to render justice to the two bravest nations in Europe.

In speaking of the political changes since 1829, I flatter myself that I have preserved a strict neutrality. I have neither the right, nor the *inclination* to compare the advantages, with the disadvantages, of the two revolutions in France; except in a moral point of view, and there every man, and more especially every father of a family, has the right.

France has long, and justly, enjoyed the reputation of being the most polished nation in Europe. She has stood so eminently high in that point of view, that her greatest enemies have never disputed her superiority. This amiable quality was so generally diffused throughout the nation that it became the distinguishing characteristic of a Frenchman, from the monarch, downward through all classes of society, to the very shoe-black.

The events by which this celebrated na-

tion has been agitated, during the last half century, appear to me, who am a watchful observer, to have had a baleful influence over this distinguishing and amiable trait in the french character; and particularly among the youth; who, before they are of an age to be capable of judging right from wrong, begin to occupy themselves with politics. They give their opinions with all the pertinacity of the most determined partisans, and by these means frequently acquire a degree of self-sufficiency of which they are seldom able to divest themselves.

Thus they lose sight of that urbanity, of that suavity, which has obtained for France the first place among civilized nations; and they greatly reduce her claims to that honorable distinction.

I speak to the rising generation. I have the honor of having a part of their edu-

cation confided to me; and I will, as far as in me lies, endeavour to prepare them for social life, so that they may fulfil their duties in it with honor and integrity; never losing sight of that amiable quality by means of which the words *French* and *polite* became synonymous.

De la corruption des mœurs naissent  
tous les maux qui, de siècle en siècle,  
viennent accabler les peuples.

DELILLE.

PERCY SADLER.

JANUARY 25. 1834.

# NAMES

## OF ANCIENT PEOPLE

MENTIONED IN THIS WORK.

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THE ALLOBROGES,	a people of Savoy.
THE ÆDUI,	people of Burgundy.
THE ARVERNI,	people of Auvergne.
THE ALLEMANNI,	{ people inhabiting the country between the Mein, the Rhine and the Danube.
THE ALBIGENCES,	{ people of Languedoc : the Protestants.
THE ALANI,	{ a people of Sarmatia or Tartary.
THE BONI,	{ a people inhabiting Bourbonnais and part of Auvergne.
THE BELGÆ,	{ a people between the Rhine and the Oise.
THE CELTS,	{ ancient inhabitants of the greater part of Gaul.
THE FRANKS,	{ the united tribes from which France took her name.
THE GAULS,	{ inhabitants of Gaul, ancient France.

THE HUNS,	{ a fierce people of Sarmatia who invaded the Roman empire and established Hungary.
THE HELVETIANS,	{ the Swiss.
THE OSTROGOTHS,	{ the Eastern Goths.
THE SEQUANI,	{ a people inhabiting Fran- che-Comté.
THE VANDALS,	{ a people on the shores of the Baltic.
THE VISIGOTHS,	{ the Western Goths.

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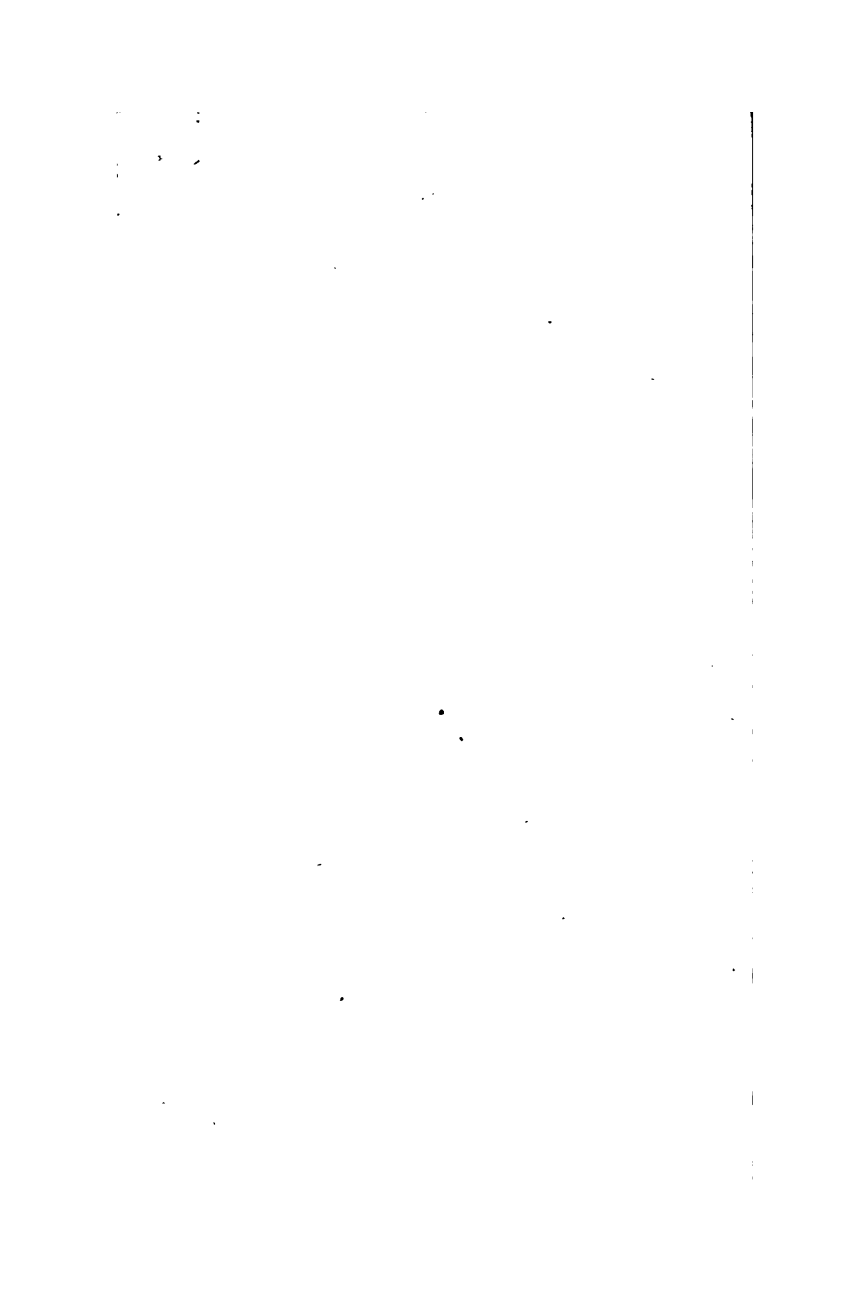
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HISTORY

OF FRANCE

IN A SERIES OF TALES.

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TALE I.

GAUL.

THE extensive, yet compact, country, now called FRANCE, and known formerly by the name of *Gaul*, was one of the most important which was liable to the general encroachments made by Rome on her neighbours. The inhabitants were very numerous and much disposed to martial achievements; frequently leaving their own country when they found their population increase, and establishing new settlements elsewhere. They were often at war with the great Roman republic, and not finally subdued until the last days of Roman liberty.

GAUL contained the whole country bounded by the Pyrenees, the Alps, the Rhine, the Mediterranean sea, and the Ocean; it was



considerable, not only from its extent, but from its climate and fertility, and chiefly inhabited by the descendants of the Celtic race. These Celts by whom Gaul was first peopled, appear to have been the great family by which the habitable parts of Europe were first settled; but their descendants were conquered by the Gothic tribes, the second great colonists of this quarter of the globe. The manners of the Celts, and especially their religious institutions, were peculiar: their chief priests were the Druids, and to them was entrusted the public worship, and the preservation of their laws and histories. These were usually couched in poetry which the Druids committed to memory, and recited at their periodical meetings and festivals.

These Druids seem to have erected one of the most complete systems of priesthood, that the world ever saw; the government was always directed by their opinion, and they had absolute influence over all classes of people. Human sacrifices were frequently offered up by them under an impression that we ought to present to the Deity what we hold most dear, which undoubtedly is human life. The Bards were only inferior to the Druids in importance. Music and Poetry were eagerly cultivated by them. They sung hymns to their Deity, and the praises of deceased warriors; and such was the affection of the people for these arts, that, at

a later period, it was found the best method to translate the Sacred Writings into poetry and set them to music.

The Government in Gaul was various among the different independant states, which, according as custom prevailed among them, were governed by kings or by elective magistrates. They were a bold, fiery, warlike race; the very women were used to sustain the fight when the men were defeated, and often slew themselves rather than surrender.

In appearance they were a handsome people : bold, yet not without civility. They arranged their hair so as to give a wildness and ferocity to their aspect; and their chiefs wore a twisted chain of gold. Manlius, an ancient Roman, who killed a champion thus decorated, assumed thence the additional name of Torquatus, or him with the Chain. They also wore bracelets and ornaments round the ancle, frequently of the same precious metal.

The Gauls were very hospitable to strangers, profuse in eating, and still more so in the use of strong liquors. The Romans accused them of being fickle and treacherous in their engagements. When their numbers seemed about to exceed the means of subsistence, many of them departed from their native country to find new settlements at the expense of some richer, or more thinly peopled region.

Thus the Gauls were frequently troublesome neighbours to the Romans, passing the Alps into Lombardy where they established strong colonies. They frequently invaded the southern parts of Italy, and under their general, Brennus, even burnt and pillaged the city of Rome itself, three hundred and eighty five years before the Christian era. They were, however, obliged to retreat, and were finally defeated by the Dictator Camillus. They rendered themselves formidable at a later period under a general named Brennus, who seized upon the treasures in the celebrated Temple of Apollo at Delphos. In these excursions, the Gallic invaders, acted, not as the forces of one united kingdom, but rather as an assemblage of independent bands of the various states and communities, into which the country was subdivided; though subject, for a time, to a single chief.

According to the opinion of Cicero, the Gauls, until the conquest of Julius Cæsar, were the most obstinate and formidable enemies of the Romans. In the celebrated conspiracy of Cataline, it was the intention of the conspirators to have obtained from Gaul a considerable force for the execution of their purpose; which comprehended nothing less than the total destruction of the Roman form of government. But certain ambassadors of the Allobroges, a people of Savoy in alliance with

Rome, having informed the Consul Sanga of the proposals which had been made to them, caused the discovery of the plot. Nevertheless, the risk of their future interference was a secret reason for urging the subjugation of this powerful people. The Romans already possessed one small province in Gaul, and more than a century before Christ's birth the Consul Marcius Rex had prepared its subjection, by establishing a Roman colony between the Pyrenees and the city of Toulouse, where he founded the state called Narbonne. This colony was connected with Italy by a military road between the Alps and Pyrenees, and afforded most of the pretexts of the Republic for interfering with the affairs of Gaul.

The protection of the Allobroges and other states in the neighbourhood of the province which had embraced the friendship of Rome, formed an apology for such intermeddling. Thus the conquest of Gaul was in a certain degree founded on state necessity; but besides this, the Romans were compelled to make a war of subjection on a people who were always restless neighbours, and occasionally dangerous enemies. Julius Cæsar was a general equally wise and skilful, and neglected no means of accomplishing an object so essential to his people, and to his own fortunes. The principal circumstance which afforded exercise for Cæsar's po-

litical sagacity, and a pretext at the same time for his military interference, was the subdivision of this great country into a variety of cities, governments and states, engaged in endless feuds which perpetually called for, or at least served to excuse, the intervention of the Roman general, who, while he pretended to advocate the rights of some, failed not to prepare the subjugation of the whole. A singular resolution on the part of the Helvetians, a Gallic tribe, afforded the Romans the first opportunity for armed interference in the affairs of Gaul.

This nation had defeated a considerable army of the Republic, and only spared their lives on condition of their passing beneath the yoke; an acknowledgment of the most abject surrender. One of Cæsar's own relatives had shared this degradation.

The habit of emigration was then so general, that the spirit of local attachment, which is at this day one of the strongest ties of the modern Swiss, was unknown to the ancient Helvetians. With the same impatience which had formerly induced their Celtic forefathers to change their position they determined to quit their barren mountains, and to march forth in a body, to establish new settlements in other regions.

After some feuds among themselves the Helvetii set forth upon their adventurous expedition. They burnt their towns and villages, and,

with their wives and children, cattle, and slaves departed. An incursion so bold as that of the Helvetians, gave the Romans a fair pretence for resisting; the more as the former proposed to march into Gaul itself through the territory of the Allobroges, allies of the Romans, and of course under their protection.

At this extraordinary intelligence, Cæsar set off with the utmost speed from Rome, to look after the pressing affairs of the Gallic province, which had been committed to his charge. He defended the frontiers of the Allobroges by raising a long wall, so flanked with towers, that the Helvetians did not dare to attack it.

The expatriated people being obliged to change their line of march, had only one road remaining, which led into Gaul through the territory of the Sequani, now called Burgundy. This road running among cliffs and torrents was by its nature judged totally inaccessible without the consent of the Sequani themselves; the Helvetians however obtained permission to pass through the defiles of the Burgundians unopposed; so that they might afterwards march in a direction which would enable them to approach the ancient Tolosatium (now Toulouse). By this movement the Roman province was highly endangered. The *Æduans*, a people near Autun, friends, if not allies of the Romans, were mortal enemies of the Sequani, and

besought assistance from Cæsar against the Helvetians. Cæsar therefore hastened to intercept their proposed march, and to prevent the threatened devastation of Gaul. So rapid were his movements, that finding the rear of their army still encamped on the eastern banks of the Arar, or Soane, he fell upon it and cut it to pieces. He then constructed, in a single day, a bridge to pass his army across that river; engaged in a decisive battle the main body of the Helvetians, and after a severe contest, defeated them with much slaughter. The Helvetians submitted, and by Cæsar's order returned to their ancient possessions excepting only one tribe called the Boii, who were permitted to settle in the territory of Autun, their junction being considered advantageous.

Julius Cæsar having thus established the terror of his name, and almost annihilated the warlike Helvetians, was soon called to undertake a war which brought him in contact with adversaries still more formidable. Of this he was informed in a private council held by the Ædui. They acquainted him that a feud had long existed among the Gauls; between the Æduans on one hand, and on the other the Sequani, and another powerful tribe, called the Arverni, a people situated on the Loire, and united with the Sequani against the Ædui. Finding that their combined strength was

unable to conquer the *Ædui*, these tribes agreed to call to their assistance the warlike German nations from the opposite side of the Rhine.

I must here remind you, that though a part of Germany had been originally settled by the Celtic tribes, yet their successors had been, at a subsequent period, subdued or banished by a people of a different race. This great and most important division of mankind, finally constituted the grand source from which the modern nations of Europe have been populated.

They were generally termed *Goths*, but had among themselves a variety of distinctive names. Their language was called *Gothic*, and was very different to that of the *Celts*. The *Goths* did not follow the religion of the Celtic tribes, nor were they acquainted with the order of the *Druids*. They worshipped the Sun and the Moon, and several imaginary deities.

They were much attached to divination, which was chiefly exercised by the matrons; the females received, from this cause, a degree of honour seldom paid to them by barbarous tribes. The *Goths* possessed some qualities which in the eyes of barbarians are of high value. They were large-limbed, tall, and very strong, having generally red hair and blue eyes. Their chiefs commanded during the time of war only, and some distinguished men were elected as their judges during peace; each of



these magistrates had a council of one hundred persons, supported by the public. The women held a high rank amongst them, and were remarkable for their chaste and honourable character. The young men were not allowed to marry till the age of twenty one; but in the meanwhile they practised those habits of restraint and sobriety, which made them fit for the duties of manhood, when they were permitted to assume the situation of a husband and a father. The women on their part finding themselves the objects of respect and attention, were anxious to obtain a higher reputation in society than is usually assigned to females in the uncivilized state. They partook in the toils and dangers of war, and when a battle was irretrievably lost, they often, by slaying themselves and their children, gave dreadful examples that they preferred death to slavery.

The character of these Gothic tribes had something superior even to that of the Gauls; they were more steady and persevering; could better endure the fatigues of a long and doubtful fight; and if inferior in the fury of a headlong onset, they kept their ground more firmly. The approach of these Goths from the east gradually subdued the Celtic colonies who occupied Germany; — some penetrating northwards into Scandinavia, while others went to the south and east, till they were checked by the moun-

tainous regions of Switzerland and the Tyrol, and by the broad course of the Rhine. The fair regions of Gaul beyond this great river naturally became objects of envy to the Germans, whose climate was less genial. It is natural therefore that the Germans should have willingly accepted the invitation of the Arverni and Sequani, to cross the Rhine, to support them against the *Ædui*; nor is it surprising that Cæsar should try to prevent it. He soon learned that Ariovistus and the Germans had already taken from the Sequani one-third of their territory, and demanded a third more for the accommodation of reinforcements, which were about to join him from Germany.

When Cæsar sent to Ariovistus to know why he assaulted the allies of the Roman people, he answered him, that he had yet to learn what pretence Cæsar, or the Romans could have for interfering with his operations in Gaul.—The Romans then marched against him; but the Gauls exaggerated the strength and ferocity of the Germans so that they spread a panic even among the Roman legions. Cæsar by his address and eloquence calmed this mutiny: he declared that he would attack the enemy though only the Tenth Legion should attend him.

This excited the emulation of the whole; and they called out to be led against the Ger-

mans. They advanced, forced the German prince to come to an action, routed his whole army with great slaughter, and drove them across the Rhine. By this decisive victory the reputation of the Roman general was so highly raised, that it enabled him to reduce the whole country to obedience. He constituted himself judge in the numerous quarrels which took place among so many independant states; and his decisions encouraged wars amongst them, which he so managed that the victory always fell to the side favourable to the Romans. The Belgæ, a people of Gaul, were the first to see in this supremacy of the Roman general, the seeds of future and absolute subjugation. This people residing nearest to the Germans, and probably being of German descent, were remarkable for their courage and skill in war. Yet their alliance against the Romans caused repeated invasions and very bloody defeats, which increased the fame of Cæsar's arms and caused the other nations to fear him. But although it was easy for Cæsar to maintain the office of governor of Gaul for a short time, yet the temper of that people, equally fierce and fickle, rendered them very difficult to govern. Ten years of the active life of Cæsar were spent in efforts to reduce Gaul to the condition of a Roman province, and for a long time with very little success. It was in vain that Cæsar laid

aside the clemency which he had practised, both from policy and inclination. It was in vain that in one action, the river Aisne was so filled up, and gorged with the dead bodies of the Gauls, that the corpses served as a bridge to their comrades who escaped from the slaughter. These and other severities did not prevent a powerful and almost universal insurrection against the Romans; in which the *Ædui* themselves, though friends of Rome, wearied out by exactions, did not refuse to join.

The chief of the league, whose name was *Vercingetorix*, after many brave exploits, was made prisoner, and *Cæsar* remained triumphant. The wars of Gaul terminated by the storming of a very strong fortress, called *Uxellodunum*, where *Cæsar* cruelly commanded the right hands of all the garrison who were fit to bear arms, to be struck off. *Plutarch* tells us that *Cæsar* in less than ten years, took more than eighty cities by storm, subdued three hundred states, and fought with thirteen millions of men.

This will appear less astonishing if the reader recollects that *Cæsar* seldom encountered one nation of Gauls, without the aid of the others with whom he was in alliance at the time; and thus, though the Roman general conducted the campaign, GAUL WAS PRINCIPALLY OVERCOME BY THE DISUNION OF HER OWN NATIVE FORCES.

In the 49<sup>th</sup> year before the Christian era, Cæsar returned to Rome, to employ, against the liberties of his own countrymen, those troops and that discipline, which had been formed during ten years' wars against the Gauls; and Rome became exposed to the mercy of her own armies, like the fabled hunter, to the attack of his own hounds.

## TALE II.

### ROMAN DOMINION IN GAUL.

Rome professed to take the conquered states under her protection; to acknowledge the authority of their magistrates, and to give them perhaps a golden diadem, a curule chair of ivory, or some other *emblem* of authority. The various cities, states or provinces of Gaul, all became subject to Rome; but the servility varied, according to the circumstances of surrender. Some were permitted to retain the *name* of freedom; others were termed confederates of the Roman people; to some a Roman governor was appointed with power over the persons and property of the unhappy natives. But in all, the Roman legions occupied their strong-holds.

A capitation tax was levied for the benefit of

the Republic, and the children of the soil were forced to serve as soldiers in different countries, to deprive other nations of their liberties. But the distinctive titles at first given to these pretended alliances, were soon entirely changed into sixteen grand divisions, called provinces. This was an arrangement made under the reign of Augustus; and thus the Romans threw off the mask under which; at the commencement, they thought it necessary to disguise their conquest.

Now let us see whether the Gauls obtained anything in exchange for their liberties. It was the boast of Rome to extend some degree of civilisation among the prostrated vassals of her empire, and to inculcate a milder kind of spiritual rites than that which had animated them in their days of savage freedom. With this view, the abominable mode of worship by human sacrifice, was forbidden throughout the Gallic states.

In abolishing this barbarous custom, there can be no doubt that the morals of the people were amended; nor can we blame the means by which the Romans endeavoured to diminish the power of the Druids; although the real cause of their doing so was, the reiterated efforts of this priesthood to inflame their countrymen against the yoke of the conquerors.

Those priests resisted all innovations, and at first with tolerable success; for no temples were built in Gaul until the time of Tiberius, when a general tax over the whole country was proposed at Rome, and only abandoned on the Gauls consenting to erect a temple to the memory of Cæsar and for the adoration of Augustus. Thus, as associates in the throne of the single deity, were placed that very Julius Cæsar, the invader and tyrant of their own country, and that Augustus whose early cruelties were combined with the brutal pollutions of his later years.

Polytheism was thus introduced into Gaul: it took root and throve to a most wonderful degree. The rich exhausted themselves in building temples; some to the Gods recognised by the Romans, and others to imaginary deities whom they had sanctified according to their own fancy. A melancholy part of this perversion was, that whilst the Gauls imbibed all the superstitions of idolatry and Polytheism, they retained their custom of human sacrifices.

These infernal rites, part of the original worship of the Druidical system, were practised secretly in defiance of the edicts of the Emperors for abolishing it; for it must not be supposed that the human victims were, after the conquest of Gaul, executed in the temples which had been erected after the fashion of the

Romans. It appears that animals alone were sacrificed within these new places of worship; but the people looking back to the days of their freedom, and desiring to worship as they had formerly worshipped, met by appointment in the dark recesses of unfrequented woods, and the Druids resumed, at these secret conclaves, the power which they were no longer permitted to exercise in public. Bearing on their head the coronet of oak leaves which they esteemed sacred; — clad in white robes, these ancient priests met the people in the deep forest to worship in secrecy and silence according to the rites of their forefathers. The victim was usually a criminal who had deserved death; or some individual of small account, who had been seized and reserved for this inhuman sacrifice. At other times it was a voluntary victim, who offered himself to expiate the sins of the people, like the scape-goat of the Israelites.

On these occasions the Druids announced to him, as his reward, eternal happiness in the society of the Gods, to propitiate whom he consented to suffer death; and the people took care that he should, for some time before his death, enjoy as many of the pleasures of this life as they could procure him. He was slain by the hand of the consecrated Druids. They observed every circumstance of his mortal agony; the



manner in which he fell ; the course of his blood down the rugged front of the sacred stone : and from these circumstances they affected to divine how far the deity was propitious to their designs.

At these secret meetings, the bards were also called in to heighten, by music and melody, the impression which was made on the assistants by the eloquence and mystic predictions of the priests. The themes chosen were the ancient glory of Gaul and her inhabitants, who though long the terror of distant countries, were now unable to protect their own against the Romans. The passions of the hearers became excited by such solemnities, and schemes of revolt were formed.

The vicinity of the Free Germans, and their incursions and conquests upon the Gallic territory, caused another vexation which excited the inhabitants to revolt. They complained that while the Romans assumed the title of their masters, and drained the provinces of the youth with whom they could have defended themselves, they left them exposed to the inroads of a barbarous and formidable enemy. These dissensions produced general convulsion throughout Gaul in the year 741 after the foundation of Rome. Drusus, who was sent by the emperor to still these commotions, convoked all the Gallic chiefs and principal magistrates at Lyons,

under pretence of dedicating the temple to Augustus. Here, by promises and some benefits, he managed to disconcert the plot of the disaffected. He then crossed the Rhine, and repulsed the Germans; and thus the time when the Gauls might have shaken off the Roman yoke passed away in inactivity.

In the year of the christian era 78, during the reign of the tyrant Nero, an opportunity occurred, when the Gauls, by the assistance of an enterprising leader, were very near accomplishing their meditated project of successful insurrection. This leader, named Caius Julius Vindex, was descended from the line of one of the ancient kings of Aquitaine, endowed with great strength of body and mind, and was an excellent soldier. The cruel exactions with which the tyrant then oppressed Gaul, gave Vindex, who was governor of Celtic Gaul, an opportunity of denouncing Nero, as one of the most depraved monsters that ever existed.

He called upon his hearers, not to rise in insurrection against the Roman empire, but to combine for the purpose of removing Nero from the government. The people already exasperated, took arms, and Vindex was soon at the head of one hundred thousand men. Nero was rather pleased than alarmed at this insurrection, conceiving it would afford his treasury great wealth from the forfeited estates of the insurgents. He

placed a reward of two hundred and fifty myriads of drachms upon the head of Vindex. When this was told to the daring leader, he replied, "To whomsoever will deliver me the head of Nero, I will be contented to resign my own life in return for having destroyed so great an enemy of the human race."

Virgilius Rufus, a Roman general who then commanded on the banks of the Rhine, advanced against Vindex, and defeated him with the loss of twenty thousand men. Hurried on by despair, the defeated general killed himself just before Nero's dethronement and death. For some years after the death of Vindex there is little worthy of notice in the history of Gaul. Like other provinces it suffered the severe and tyrannical exactions of the Roman governors.

The Gauls were among the first to recognise as emperor the celebrated Septimius Severus, who was governor of the province of Lyons. The last scene of the civil wars which completed the elevation of Severus to the imperial throne, was the defeat of his rival Albinus at Timurteum about twenty leagues from Lyons. The Roman empire began now to totter, and different nations, which by force of arms she had compelled to retire from her boundaries, began to thicken around her for the purpose of ravage and plunder; others with the intent of making conquests and settlements, within the imperial territory.

Three of the nations, or coalitions of tribes, who had regarded Gaul as their natural conquest, must be distinguished from the others from their becoming the corner stone of the great monarchy to which they gave a name: these are the Franks, the founders of the present kingdom of France. The Germans, the most formidable enemies of Rome since the days of Cæsar, frequently defeated by the Romans, but always resisting them, are supposed, about the middle of the third century, to have formed a new association or alliance for the purpose of mutual defence, to which in token of their love of liberty they gave the name of Franks or Freemen. This formidable people commenced a series of furious incursions upon Gaul, which the Romans under Gallienus and Posthumus endeavoured to repel. The province suffered greatly from the military operations, being exposed to the ravages of both parties. Indeed the south-eastern provinces of Gaul had been so cruelly ravaged, that they afforded the Franks only a road to the Pyrenees, and thence into Spain which contained a spoil far more tempting. The Franks had yet a country where they resided when they chose to abide at rest; and to their original settlements on the eastern or German side of the Rhine they had added a considerable tract called at that time Toxandria, which appears to have comprehended great part of Brabant.

Their habitations were in woods and morasses, or on the banks of lakes and rivers. The Allemanni were another and separate association resembling that of the Franks : the Suevi formed the strength of this confederation, a tribe much esteemed for courage ; they assumed the title of Allemanni, or All-men, to mark the general union of their league. Besides making distant and extensive excursions, one of which brought them almost to the city of Rome itself ; they, like the Franks, had a fixed abode on the eastern banks of the Upper Rhine ; and they were not less formidable to Gaul than the Franks.

About the year 357 Julian, who from his renouncing the Christian religion obtained the epithet of the *Apostate*, was sent with very insufficient forces to rescue Gaul from the ravages of the barbarians. He defeated the Allemanni in the battle of Strasburg, and afterwards crossed the Rhine three times ; upon each occasion taking forts and winning battles, so that Gaul was for a time relieved from the incursions of these barbarous enemies. The provinces of Gaul enjoyed for some time the advantages procured by the active talents of Julian, and although the Franks were celebrated for inconstancy, they remained for some time faithful to Rome. They even resisted the temptation of an opportunity to break their alliance with the

Romans, offered by the great invasion of Rhodagast or Radagaisus, which eventually destroyed the Roman empire, except in Italy itself. This Barbarian prince had collected from the shores of the Baltic sea, an immense army in which were so many Goths, that the name of King of the Goths was generally given to their commander. The Vandals, the Suevi, and the Burgundians joined his standard. The Emperor Honorius sent against them his minister Stilicho, a man of warlike and political talent; he came upon the king of the Goths while he was besieging Florence, and by a rapid movement surrounded the besiegers, who were soon reduced to a starving condition, and obliged to surrender. A hundred thousand men were still however in the north of Italy; Stilicho advised them to attack Gaul, hoping thus to relieve Italy from such unwelcome guests. They took the hint, and soon appeared on the Gallic frontiers. Those who attacked Gaul from the Upper Rhine experienced neither assistance nor opposition from the Allemanni. But the Vandals, who were very numerous, approached the territories occupied by the Franks on the lower part of the river. Faithful to their engagements with the Romans, the Franks advanced to oppose them, and twenty thousand Vandals were slain in the battle. But the Alani, another nation of barbarians, came up during the conflict and

compelled the Franks to retreat. Without further opposition the remains of the army of Radagaisus crossed the Rhine which was then frozen; carried fire and sword into the rich country, which had scarcely recovered from the devastations of the Franks and Allemanni, and reduced it again to a smoking desert. This invasion of Gaul took place in 407.

### TALE III.

#### THE FRANKS AND HUNS.

GAUL could no longer be considered as an appendage to the Roman Empire. The province was filled with tribes of barbarians of Gothic or Celtic descent, carrying on a desultory warfare with each other, without any decisive result. You must well remember the Franks, as in their descendants we find the origin of the powerful Kingdom of France. They occupied both sides of the lower Rhine, and at first opposed the remains of Radagaisus's army, but were overpowered by the Vandals and other hordes. They then resolved to seize upon a share of the prize which they could no longer defend; and amidst the general confusion, found no difficulty in adding to their western frontier a large portion of territory. At this pe-

riod they had established a kingly government by hereditary descent in the Merovingian family. — These princes allowed their hair to descend in long curls over their shoulders, and thence were called the LONG-HAIRED KINGS; while the rest of the Franks shaved their hair on the back part of the head. Their dominions extended as far westward as the banks of the Somme.

The Goths, or that part of them called Visigoths, or western Goths, had established themselves in the province of Gascony, and their chief Theodoric had been converted with his subjects to the Christian faith. Ætius the Roman general made war against Theodoric, but a common enemy was approaching, so formidable as to compel both parties to unite. It was the unexpected appearance of a countless army of Asiatics on the borders of the still harassed Eastern Empire. This extraordinary emigration had arisen out of convulsions so far to the eastward as the Great Wall of China. Myriads of the mounted Tartar tribes collected together, dragging or driving on each other, and poured westward like locusts. Wherever this tide of armed emigration came, it struck universal terror. They were extremely numerous, nor was their appearance less terrible than their numerical force.

The Gothic and German tribes possessed a strength of limb and loftiness of stature seem-



ingly beyond the usual growth. The Huns (as these new invaders were called) were dwarfish in stature, and their limbs, though strongly formed, were disproportioned to each other. Their countenances were of the cast commonly called Chinese; and their small sparkling eyes deep sunk, and at a distance from each other; a flat nose and a large mouth, added peculiar hideousness to the wild and frightful expression of the face. Their manners were ferocious and brutal, and they are said to have resembled demons in features and actions. The Gothic tribes on the northern bank of the Danube, were the first to experience the furious attack of these new enemies, and were so much struck with terror, that, like one wave pursued by another, the body of the nation poured towards the banks of the Danube, and implored permission to cross that mighty barrier, and to take shelter under the protection of the Roman Emperor, from the barbarians who were pouring upon them from the deserts of Tartary. The Goths were admitted to take refuge within the limits of the empire, and they never again left the territory; but remained there, sometimes in the character of avowed enemies, and at others in that of doubtful auxiliaries and friends. The Huns did not follow the Goths, but took undisturbed possession of Hungary to which they gave their name, and of great part of eastern

Germany. These fertile regions seemed sufficient for their wants, and their incursions upon the Empire of the East were not of a terrific character. But in 433, we find the forces of the Huns again combined under the guidance of one well qualified to use a power so tremendous. This was Attila, or Etzell, as he is called by German tradition, surnamed the Scourge of God. —

By the ferocious activity of his followers, he was enabled to make good the inhuman boast, that grass never grew on the spot over which he passed. His first wars were with the Eastern empire, from which he exacted a large yearly tribute, an extensive cession of territory, and obliged Theodosius, then Emperor of the East, to submit to the most humiliating demands.

Attila determined to pour upon Gaul the terrors of a Tartar invasion. Ætius could only attempt to defend the Roman province against the barbarians of the East, by forming an alliance with one of those nations of barbarians which issued from the north. The Visigoths, or western Goths were in possession of Aquitaine, and had fixed their capital at Toulouse. This powerful nation was governed by Theodoric, the son of Alaric a king of the Goths, and obtained his aid for the defence of Gaul against the Huns. These Tartars advanced with all their tribes; and Attila flattered Ætius and Theodoric alternately

with his friendship, and threatened them with his formidable enmity; suggesting to each, that the peril respected the other alone. While thus amusing them, he crossed the Rhine by a bridge of boats; penetrated into the centre of the province of Gaul, which he wasted; and laid siege to the important town of Orleans. But mutual alarm had now accomplished a union between the Roman Patrician and the valiant Gothic monarch, which mutual distrust had so long impeded. Theodoric raised a powerful army and appeared at their head; Ætius called to arms the people in Gaul who were still attached to the Romans; and among them brought to the field Merovæus the long-haired king of the Franks; though Attila called that nation *his* allies. The confederates marched forward and surprised Attila while in the attack upon Orleans. He was compelled to raise the siege, and recrossing the river concentrated his cavalry near Chalons in Champagne. The Goths with the army of Ætius marched against him, and the crisis seemed to approach which was to decide the fate of this fair portion of Europe. Both were barbarians, but the Goths had adopted some doctrines of morality which mitigated the ferocity of their natural manners, and rendered them far more civilized than the Tartars.

The battle of Chalons therefore was likely to determine whether the European or the

Asiatic Savage was to predominate in the province of Gaul.

The aged but valiant king of the Goths, Theodoric, was killed in the front of the battle, but his place being bravely filled by his eldest son Torrimond, the impetuous career of his followers was not checked, and Attila was compelled to seek, after the Scythian custom, a retreat among his waggons, which served to transport their families, and sometimes to fortify them against a prevailing enemy. The troops of the Romans suffered greatly, and Ætius their leader being separated from his soldiers, sought refuge in the camp of his allies. The battle was dreadful to the victors as well as the vanquished; and the former judged it more prudent to suffer Attila to effect a retreat watched by a part of their army, than to risk the glory of their hard earned victory in an attempt to cut off the retreat of the Tartar prince. Attila retired to the northern parts of Italy, and died not long after.

## TALE IV.

CLOVIS 1<sup>st</sup> CHRISTIAN KING (481).

I HAVE already noticed the Franks, as founders of modern France. But the original extent of their dominions was small, and the increase of

their power slow. In the time of Clovis which is the same name as Louis (the *chl* of the celtic tribes resembling the aspirated *hl*), they made great advances rather by the address of the monarch, than by the superior valour of his followers, though the Franks were allowed to be among the bravest of the German tribes who invaded Gaul. Some of the Gallic colonists still retained the name of Romans, and endeavoured to embody themselves under the command of one Syagrius, who established his head-quarters at Soissons. But Clovis with his warlike Franks commenced his career of conquest by defeating him. He took him prisoner, caused him to be beheaded, and seized upon his dominions; thus adding to the territories of the Franks the provinces of Gaul betwixt the Rhine and the Loire. Clovis afterwards vanquished a king of Thuringia, named Basin, and extended his sway over his country. But Clovis's success was principally determined by his adopting the Christian faith. The chief agent in his conversion was his Queen Clotilda, daughter of Gundobald, King of Burgundy, his neighbour and ally. By her affectionate exhortations his mind was disposed to Christianity, though he long hesitated to embrace it. At length in a battle with the Allemanni on the upper part of the Rhine, Clovis, being hard pressed, vowed that if he should obtain a victory he would become

a christian. The victory was obtained, and the acquisition of new dominions greatly augmented the power of the Franks.

Soon after this ( A. D. 496 ), Clovis adopted the christian faith and was baptized in the cathedral of Rheims, where it has been ever since the custom to crown and consecrate the Monarchs of France.

Burgundy, the country of his wife, was afterwards subjected by Clovis, who was both a dexterous politician and an accomplished soldier. Gundobald was attacked and defeated, and after his death his son Sigismund was taken and put to death, the sons of Clovis causing him and his family to be thrown into a well. But before the conquest of Burgundy was accomplished war broke out between Clovis and those Visigoths, who had assisted in defeating the Huns at the battle of Chalons. These Visigoths, whose religious opinions differed from those of the Franks, were at this time governed by a prince called Alaric, who was jealous of the growing conquests of the catholic Clovis. The two monarchs however met as friends upon an Island of the Loire, which then divided their dominions. They feasted together and parted as friends, but with mutual rancour at heart.

Clovis held a council of his barons; —“ Let not these heretics,” he said, “ longer enjoy the choicest portion of Gaul ! ” He was answered by

loud acclamations, and to show his own zeal rode to the front of his nobles, and throwing his battle-axe forward said : "Where my *francisca* alights will I dedicate a church to the blessed St. Peter, prince of the Apostles, and to his holy brethren!" On the spot where the weapon fell, Clovis erected the great church now called Sainte-Genevieve, formerly St. Peter and St. Paul. Clovis then advanced against Alaric, who appeared at the head of an army of Goths, far superior to that of the Franks. A battle ensued near Poitiers (A. D. 500), where Clovis prevailed. He shewed his personal bravery in the pursuit, and slew Alaric with his own lance; but escaped with difficulty, from two desperate Gothic champions, who united to avenge their monarch's death, by that of his conqueror.

Clovis's reputation as a conqueror was however, in his latter years, somewhat tarnished by a defeat before Arles, from Theodoric the Great King of the Ostrogoths; but it did not greatly affect his power, and he seized every opportunity of extending his dominions either by fraud or violence; cutting off without mercy the princes of the Merovingian race, whose interests seemed likely to interfere with those of his own family. Yet, though stained with the blood of his own relatives, as well as others, Clovis with many crimes, as an individual, was an able monarch.

He not only extended the power of his tribe, over what we must in future call France; combining into one strong monarchy the fragments of so many barbarous tribes; but he also ruled them by equitable and humane laws. His code was called the Salic and Ripuarian, from having its origin on the banks of the Saal, and the eastern side of the Rhine; the laws bore the stamp of the warlike freedom which distinguished the ancient Franks.

The king gave to his friends and followers the temporary possession of benefices, fiefs or farms; stipulating the services they were to perform in return for granting to them the profits of the soil. These grants terminated at the will of the holder of the soil, or at the death of the tenant; but at last it became usual to renew the grant, in favour of his eldest son, or nearest heir, who paid, or rendered, a certain acknowledgement for this preference.

The female inheritance was prohibited by the Salic law. In many respects the Frank institutions were barbarous. Slaughter was only punished by a fine, according to the value at which the law rated the person slain.

Ordeals of various kinds were used in order to make manifest the guilt or innocence of the accused person: such as walking barefoot among bars of hot iron; and similar unreasonable appeals contrary to the laws of nature, were ad-



mitted for obtaining a special testimony of innocence. But a mode of trial far more suitable to the manners of these martial barbarians was the referring the issue of a law-suit or dispute of any kind, to the encounter of two champions, espousing the different sides of the contest in the lists. This regulation was so well suited to the genius and disposition of the barbaric tribes, that it was soon generally introduced throughout Europe. Thus arose in France, the first germ of those institutions, called the feudal system, the trial by combat, and other peculiarities, which distinguished the jurisprudence of the Middle Ages.

We can also trace, in the customs and laws of the Franks, the same rude marks of the Trial by Jury. The Jurymen were, in the days of the origin of law, called compurgators. They were little more than witnesses brought forward to give evidence in behalf of the accused person. "You have heard things alledged against me," said the accused, "but I will produce a certain number of compurgators that are well acquainted with me, and who will pledge their oath that I am incapable of what has been imputed to me." The compurgators became limited to a certain number, and assisted in judging the cause, listening to the proof adduced on both sides, and deciding which of the two pre-

dominated. So that from being witnesses they became jurymen.

The warlike habits of the Franks induced them to claim such superiority over the Gallic or Roman colonists, that a very great part of them was reduced to the condition of bondsmen; but the more refined provincialists found a retreat in the church, and, in their character as priests, dealt forth to them the good and evil things of the next world, in consideration of partaking largely of the good things of this.

Clovis having laid the foundation of a mighty state, died in 511 at Paris, which he had fixed upon for the capital of his dominions.

The Kings of the First or Merovingian race were never remarkable for family concord, and, while their empire was divided into departments, they seem to have fallen into complete anarchy. Their wars were conducted with the utmost cruelty, and their social regulations were often violated.

One of Clovis's grandsons Theodibert, King of Metz, made an unsuccessful irruption into Italy, and was soon after slain at a hunting match by a wild bull.

He left a son, but Clotaire his uncle had the address to seduce the allegiance of the people from the young heir of Metz, and prevail on them to acknowledge him as nearer to the blood of the great Clovis; and in the end

he succeeded in uniting under his own sway all the dominions of that great conqueror and legislator. After the death of Clotaire, the Frank empire was again subdivided, and exposed to a succession of wars, murders, and treacheries. About this time the Kings of the Merovingian race began to feel the effects of their crimes. These princes had neglected their duties to plunge themselves into sensual pleasures, and had used their regal power for the gratification of their own selfish wishes, instead of applying it to the administration of justice. Consequently their minds became corrupted, they knew not how to govern, and the real exercise of authority devolved upon a minister named *MAIRE DU PALAIS*, or high steward of the royal household.

The Kings retiring into the interior of their palace, led a life so useless that they were called *Rois Faineans*, or Idiot Princes, while their *Maires du Palais* assumed the command of the armies, administered justice, and made war and peace at pleasure, without even consulting the wish, or inclination of the nominal King. Pepin d'Heristhal, so called from a castle of that name on the Meuse, where he resided, was one of the most distinguished of those ministers, whose increasing power prepared the way for the final extinction of the race of Merovæus. The unfortunate monarch was treated

with such *apparent* respect as fully satisfied the people, who still venerated the blood of Clovis. When exhibited to the people, he was driven about the streets like a show, in a large waggon drawn by oxen, surrounded by guards, who, under pretence of protecting his person, suffered no one to approach him. On public occasions he was environed by the great officers of state, and every thing like real business was settled by Pepin, who, to the title of *Maire du Palais*, added that of *Duke*, or leader of the Franks; and under these titles disposed of the full power of the crown.

Pepin d'Heristhal did not escape the dangers attendant on power. He was attacked and stabbed when at his devotions. He recovered however from the wound, and some time after, named his son Theobald for his successor, as *Maire du Palais*, though only six years old, and died (A. D. 714) shortly after. But this child, though the only legitimate son of Pepin, could not resist the influence of the illegitimate offspring of the same minister, the famous Charles Martel, called the hammerer, from the resistless weight of his blows in battle. After several victories he compelled the king, Thierry of Chelles, a descendant of Clovis, to admit him to the dignity of *Maire du Palais*. The Kingdom was fortunate in possessing his abilities at that time, for a crisis was approaching,

threatening more imminent danger to France, than since the great inroad of Attila.

A nation whose tongue they did not understand, and who came with the Koran in one hand, and the sword in the other; offering the choice of apostacy, or death : these were the Saracens, believers in Mahomet; they had burst forth from their deserts, to preach the Koran and lay waste the world.

From Africa, they crossed into Spain (A. D. 713), and destroyed the Kingdom which the Goths had erected there : they then turned their arms against France. The dukedom of Aquitaine was first exposed to their inroads. It was governed by a prince named Eudo, who had opposed Charles Martel, but now implored his assistance against the common enemy. The Kingdom of the Franks still preserved extensive possessions on the east side of the Rhine, and the Maire du Palais levied in Germany a large body of troops whose strength and fair complexion were likely to inspire terror in the swarthy and slender Arabs. Charles Martel, having communicated his plans to Eudo, prepared for the approaching campaign with a degree of caution that seemed foreign to his character. He permitted the numerous bands of the invaders to enfeeble their force by dispersing themselves through the country in search of plunder, and kept his own army

strongly concentrated. The Saracens and Christians at length encountered near the city of Tours (A. D. 732); the contest lasted several days, and seemed to be maintained with an obstinacy worthy its importance. The Saracens obtained some advantage, but this was lost when they came to mingle in close combat, with the powerful warriors of the North. Their battalions were already hard pressed, when cries were heard in the rear, and they discovered that their camp was attacked by Eudo, at the head of the people of Aquitaine. They then gave way and were defeated with immense slaughter. It is said that three hundred and seventy-five thousand Saracens were slain, and that only fifteen hundred Christians fell in the battle. This great victory decided the war. The Saracens lost the footing they had gained beyond the Pyrenees; and Europe was saved from Mahometanism.

Charles Martel died in 741, and was succeeded in his title of duke and prince of France, and guardian of its long-haired kings, by his sons Carloman and Pepin: but Carloman retired from the world into an Italian convent.

About A. D. 750 Pepin, who had hitherto governed in the name of Childeric, began to think of surmounting the obstacle betwixt him and the name of king. The important question whether the Faineant should continue to

possess the royal title, rather than the active and effective minister, was referred to Pope Zacharias, then bishop of Rome. This pontiff had received the most important services from Pepin, against the arms of the Lombards, a nation of barbarians who had usurped the command of Italy; he was therefore warmly disposed to favour him.

He declared his opinion that in a contract like that betwixt the kings of France and their people, if the former should neglect the duties of a sovereign, they lost the right of exacting allegiance from their subjects.

Pepin was prepared for this decision. He held an assembly of the Frank nobles and degraded Childeric III, the last of the race of Merovæus. His long hair was shaved to prevent him from again ascending the throne; and he was obliged to retire into a monastery. Thus ended the first or Merovingian race of the kings of France.

## TALE V.

### PEPIN LE BREF AND CHARLEMAGNE (753).

PEPIN, called by historians *le Bref* or the Short, to distinguish him from his ancestor Pepin d'Heristhal, was elevated upon a buckler after the ancient custom of the Franks, and

declared king of the nation. He became the founder of the Carlovingian or second race of French kings, who, like their predecessors, commenced their dynasty in glory, and degenerated, until they were superseded by another family. Pepin and his son Charles, who obtained the name of Charlemagne or Charls the Great (768), made great progress towards erecting a new Western empire; the laws and institutions of which were, in a great measure, founded on those of the Franks, and have since been called the feudal system. Both Pepin and Charlemagne engaged in repeated invasions of Italy, for the purpose of supporting the bishops of Rome against the Lombards, who were finally conquered and annihilated by Charlemagne. The Popes failed not to evince their gratitude to Charlemagne from whom they had experienced so many favours; and in return the Bishop of Rome solemnly raised his benefactor, Charles, to the rank of Emperor. As king of the Franks, he succeeded to their dominions both in France and Italy; for when under the long-haired kings, that people advanced their conquests in France, they still retained their original German possessions on the east of Rhine, the land of their fathers, when they first formed their association of Franks or freemen. But Charlemagne greatly enlarged these German possessions by the conquest of Saxony. That



province was inhabited by a fierce people, and it cost a war of thirty years and upwards ere they were conquered. In Germany, Charlemagne also defeated the remains of the Huns, or Tartars, and added to his empire Bohemia and Pannonia, so as to reach the frontiers of the eastern or Grecian Empire.

In Spain, he gained considerable advantages over the Saracens, and extended his power from the Pyrenees to the banks of the Ebro, which river bounded his empire. In the battle of Roncesvalles however, Charlemagne suffered a terrible defeat, and lost a great part of his Paladins, a select band of renowned champions. The rear guard of the Franks was attacked by the natives of Gascony, whom the Moors had bribed to assist on the occasion, and very many were slain. The celebrated Orlando or Roland fell on this occasion. There can be no doubt that Charles, by his courage, constant activity and frequent successes, deserved the title of *Great*.

He was a legislator as well as a conqueror; he studied those arts by which society is cemented, and the rules of war, by which its bonds are burst asunder. He dreaded the introduction of luxury among his subjects: on one occasion observing that his nobility and vassals had indulged to extravagance in silk dresses, lined with fur, he invited them thus

arrayed to a royal hunting party, though in the depth of winter, and the day rainy. He then, after they had been completely drenched in the forest, led them back to the royal hall, where the heat of the fire shrivelled up the wet furs. Charles, on this, gloried in his own plain sheep-skin cloak, which had neither suffered by the storm, nor by the heat, and told them to reserve silks and furs for days of ceremony; and to use in war, and in the chase, the plain but serviceable dress of their ancestors. Charles was succeeded in 814, by Louis called the Debonnaire from his obliging and gentle character. That character was however much too soft for the times in which he lived, and the instructions which his father had carefully given him proved inadequate to fortify his temper against the difficulties of his situation.

## TALE VI.

### LOUIS I. THE DEBONNAIRE (814).

THE near relations of the new Emperor conspired against his crown and life, and he felt a degree of remorse at the necessity of punishing them, which increased their boldness and obliged him to submit to the most degrading insults. His empress Judith, of the house of

Guelf, a second wife, obtained also a power over his mind and persuaded him to raise Charles, a son whom she bore to him, to a right of succession in the empire. This incensed the sons of his former marriage. Lothaire, Pepin, and Louis engaged in rebellion against the good-natured king. He even became prisoner (A. D. 835) to his insurgent sons, and was solemnly degraded from his royal dignity. He was afterwards recalled to the throne, but only to be disturbed by the intrigues of his young wife and the pretensions of his adult sons. Louis the Debonnaire died (A. D. 840) broken hearted, but left no part of his dominions to his son Louis, whom he considered as especially undutiful. Immediately upon his death a war ensued among his children; and in a dreadful battle near Fontenoy, upwards of one hundred thousand men of the Frank nation fell in defence of the pretensions of the various claimants. It was not till five years afterwards that this fraternal discord was terminated by a treaty, by which the dominions of Charlemagne were divided into three parts, and shared among the three brothers. The eldest Lothaire kept the title of emperor; he retained all Italy, with the city of Rome, and the country lying betwixt the rivers Rhine, Rhone, Soane, Meuse, and Scheldt, which was from him called Lotharingia: the word has been cor-

rupted to Lorraine which forms a part of what were Lothaire's dominions. Louis, the second brother, enjoyed all the dominions of Germany beyond the Rhine, and was thence called Louis the German. Charles, whose pretensions had during his father's life time given so much occasion for disturbance, was declared king of the third portion.

The Saracens no longer restrained by such generals, as Pepin, Charles Martel, or Charlemagne, again attacked Gaul by land, and Italy by sea, and left no rest to the afflicted provinces of Charlemagne's empire. A still more formidable people had taken up arms for the purpose of harassing the coasts of Europe and acquiring settlements by force. These were the inhabitants of Norway, Sweden, and Denmark, called by the ancients Scandinavia. Their fleets were extremely numerous and commanded by able and enterprising men. They ravaged all the coasts of Britain, France, and Spain, and sometimes even entered the Mediterranean.

Though of various nations, yet being all of northern extraction, these pirates were known to the inhabitants of the south under the name of Northmen, or Normans, and they became so formidable, that public prayers were put up to heaven for delivery from these visitations. The people often endeavoured to pacify them by humble submission, the kings bribed them

by money. But though one squadron might be thus induced to relinquish their purpose for a season, the next summer was sure to bring fresh swarms upon the coasts of southern Europe.

While the coasts of France were thus exposed, its interior suffered the evils which attend on the inability and disunion of princes. The epithets bestowed on the line of Charlemagne are taken from personal imperfections; and they were nick-named, the Bald, the Simple, the Stammerer, and the Gross. In the year 885, the disasters of France caused by the misconduct of its princes and the assaults of foreign enemies, seemed to threaten its national existence. CHARLES THE GROSS, or fat, had, after the death of most of the direct descendants of Charlemagne, obtained the title of emperor, with which he united for a time that of king of France. This prince had consented to the settlement of a body of Normans in his province of Friezeland, hoping by their presence and co-operation to protect the coast of the Netherlands, against visitations from their countrymen. Finding however they continued their incursions, and that Godfrey the king of these settlers intrigued against him with Hugo, a bastard nephew, he resolved, by a daring crime, to repair the consequences of a political error.

Henry duke of Saxony, one of the Emperor's

officers, prevailed upon Godfrey, by the orders of his master, to have an interview with him. To this interview duke Henry brought one count Berard, whom Godfrey had driven from his estate. The consequence was that Berard upbraided the Norman prince, and in the altercation killed him with his battle-axe. The Normans also who accompanied their leader shared his fate. The emperor having obtained possession of his nephew Hugo's person caused his eyes to be put out, and shut him up in the great convent of St. Gall in Switzerland. The Normans, incensed at such treachery, assembled a fleet of seven hundred sail, small vessels certainly, since they came up the Seine, to attack the city of Paris, the capital of France (since the time of Clovis).

When assaulted by the Normans (885), the town occupied only what is still called the isle of the City, which was surrounded by the Seine and accessible by two bridges, the approaches to which were strongly fortified with towers. The Normans who had expected to carry the place by surprise were disappointed; but although not accustomed to regular sieges, they disembarked their numerous bands, and pressed the city with a blockade, and also by repeated assaults. Much courage was shown in the attack and defence, and all the weapons of war then known were employed. The bridges were

defended by Eudes, an officer of courage and talent. The Normans erected three movable towers, each capable of sheltering sixty men, and mounted upon wheels, by which they attacked the defences of the bridges. But these towers were dashed to pieces by the stones hurled upon them, or consumed by combustibles discharged from engines. Battering-rams were also used by the North-men, but with little success.

The historians of Paris still commemorate the courage of twelve warriors, who defended to the last the tower of the little Chatelet and were all killed. The loss of men and scarcity of provisions began to be distressing to the besieged. Sigefroy, the king of the Normans, having under him thirty thousand men of that warlike nation, did not confine his operations to the siege, but spread his forces through France, laying waste the country and collecting supplies for his army. The Parisians dispatched Eudes, who had the command of the place, to the emperor Charles the Gross, with an account of their desperate situation, and supplications for relief.

Charles sent Henry, duke of Saxony, to try if he could extinguish the flame, which his treachery had kindled. The Duke led but few troops, and could only throw himself into the city with provisions and reinforcements. Shortly

after in an attempt to reconnoitre the lines of the besiegers, he fell into a ditch covered with straw laid upon slight hurdles, and was slain.

Paris was now more exposed than ever; for the troops of Henry of Saxony disbanded after his death. Eudes did all that man could to animate the spirit of resistance. Another great danger now threatened the Parisians: it was the heat of summer, and the Seine became so low as to be fordable. Suddenly at the hour of dinner, the Normans plunged into the river, and gaining the opposite bank, began to ascend the wall by ladders. A few gallant French champions rushed to arms, and made good the defence till more came up and drove back the besiegers. The day after this attack the banners of France were seen on the hill called *Montmartre*, and the approach of the army of the emperor spread joy and hope among the citizens, and obliged the Normans to retire within their own lines.

Sigefroy was like a lion at bay, and Charles the Gross was convinced that the Normans would abide the event of battle, or recommence the siege of Paris, if he awaited. He resolved therefore to end the war by treaty, rather than risk the event of a battle, and basely agreed to purchase the retreat of the Normans for the sum of seven hundred pounds of silver, and consented that they should take up their winter quar-



ters in Burgundy. For this purpose they desired to ascend the Seine, but the Parisians refused to permit them to approach so near their ramparts, that a breach of faith might have endangered their city. Sigefroy and his Normans therefore drew their light galleys over land, and launched them again in the river Seine, at a certain distance above Paris. The French were mortified and incensed at the dishonourable treaty by which Charles bought, what he might have gained by the sword; he became an object of contempt, and sunk into a kind of idiocy. Arnold, one of his nephews, was chosen in his place, and Charles, despised and wretched, did not long survive his merited humiliation.

## TALE VII.

Eudes and Charles the Simple (888).

We have seen that Arnold, a descendant of Charlemagne, was chosen emperor on the deposition of Charles the Gross. In that part of the dominions however which retained the name of France, the inhabitants appear to have determined to seek for the virtues and talents of Charlemagne, elsewhere than in his line. Eudes the valiant Count of Paris, so distinguished for his defence of that town, was elevated to the throne

by the voice of the people. He shewed himself worthy of their good opinion; for when proposed as a candidate for the crown of France, he declared he would resign his pretension rather than cause a civil war. The emperor struck with his generosity at once acknowledged his title, and he entered accordingly upon the government of France. But his reign was not glorious; he died ( A. D. 898 ) regretted by the people, but hated by the nobles, whose power he had abridged.

Eudes left a son named Arnold, but he did not succeed to the crown of his father, it being occupied by Charles, a prince of the Carlovigian race; but he was so indolent that he acquired the epithet of SIMPLE. Under the reign of so weak a prince the disorders of the state became general. Charlemagne had held his sceptre with a firm hand: governments, offices, and even lands, were only granted for life; at the death of the person they passed again to the crown. But under a weak monarch the possessors of offices or lands, endeavoured to perpetuate their authority and their property, in their families. Thus the nobles of the first rank, who now took the title indifferently of Duke, Marquis, Count, or the like, were no longer the mere delegates of the sovereign, who had conferred the gift upon their predecessors; but formed an order of petty Kings,

administering justice, coining money, making ordinances, and acting as independant princes, each in his own province. The system descended so low, that even private gentlemen had their domestic establishments upon a scale resembling that of the sovereign himself; and each was a prince when seated in his own tower, and surrounded by his dependants. This system of feudal dependance began to assume the form of fixed and assured law : it produced an influence upon government and manners, which was on some accounts extremely advantageous, and on others very much the reverse. Each vassal paid to his superior that service and homage which his fief required; but that being once discharged, his obligation was ended : he was as free a man as his superior himself.

You will recollect that these people were descendants of the Franks, Burgundians, and other tribes who had conquered Rome and seized upon two thirds of the land, which they apportioned among themselves, assuming the title of Leodes; signifying freemen. The Roman colonists on the other hand whom the barbarians had subdued, were permitted to cultivate the remaining third, which was left by the conquerors for their subsistence. It was by their hands that almost all the agriculture of the country was carried on, which necessary though irksome task, the Leodes left to the charge of the serfs,

or bondsmen ; for to that station were the unhappy Romans reduced, and by that epithet were they known. The freeman hunted, fished, or went to war, at the call of his superior, or by his own inclination ; but he paid no tax, and put his hand to no labour. The pasturages were stocked with cattle, often the spoils of war, which were kept either by serfs or domestic slaves ; for both kinds of servitude were known to the French, and the laws of war placed the captive at the pleasure of the conqueror, unless he was able to purchase his freedom by a ransom.

The men who thus enjoyed independance, and escaped every species of toil except that of warfare, were a bold and high spirited race. They were ready warriors, and true to their word, and so far the character of the French nation was highly improved by the introduction of the feudal system. In other respects the independance of the crown vassals on the king, and that of the barons of the second order upon the crown vassals, formed but a feeble system of government. The whole kingdom instead of having one interest and one government, seemed divided among the great vassals of the crown, none of whom was disposed to admit the king to exercise more power over him, than was strictly conformable to the rules of the feudal tenure. These great feuda-

tories considered the diminution of the king's influence as the mode of increasing their own; the same principle of disunion was undermining theirs; and their vassals and dependants were frequently disposed to refuse that service to them which *they* hesitated to grant to the crown.

To these internal disorders were added the repeated invasions of the Northmen; a large army and fleet of them appeared at the mouth of the Seine, commanded by Hrolle or Rollo, a warlike prince, son of the king of Denmark. One large body of his forces sailed up the river Loire, and destroyed the cathedral of St.-Martin of Tours. Another commanded by Rollo in person, ascended the Seine, took the city of Rouen, and fixed their head quarters there. Charles the Simple was desirous of putting a stop to this peril, by composition rather than by battle. He made a truce with the Norman prince; but by the advice of Richard Duke of Burgundy he broke it, and engaged again in hostilities. Rollo was defeated near Chartres; and after the battle the victors surrounded a hill to which he had retreated with the remainder of his army. But at the dead of night, the Norman prince cut his way through them, and his army being greatly reinforced soon took the offensive.

Charles was now obliged to resume his ne-

gociations : he suggested to Rollo, that if he would embrace the christian religion and become a loyal vassal, he was willing to confer upon him the fertile province hitherto called Neustria, as the dowry of his daughter Gisele who was to become the wife of Rollo, although she was only ten or twelve years old, and he fifty. Rollo accepted these favourable terms, adopted the christian faith, and exchanged his name for that of Robert. But when the new duke was to receive the investiture of Normandy, Charles required him to kneel to his liege lord and kiss his foot. "My knee shall never bend to mortal," said the haughty Norman. It was then suggested that this difficulty might be surmounted by appointing a deputy to kiss, in his name, the foot of Charles. Accordingly the duke commanded a common soldier to perform the ceremony in his stead, and he did it so rudely that it is said he overturned the king.

Rollo entered upon his new dominions, and governed them with the strictest justice; he was so severe in the execution of robbers, that at length, it is said, rings of gold were exposed publicly without incurring the least risk. The Norman followers of Rollo were also converted to the Christian creed, without losing any part of their dauntless courage and contempt of death. The state of Normandy thus esta-

blished was destined a century afterwards to give a dynasty of kings to England.

The unfortunate Charles the Simple was so indolent that he abandoned his affairs to the hands of a gentleman named Haganon, of low birth and moderate talents. This was the source of various rebellions. Charles shewed himself to advantage in repressing them; but in council he was as rash and impolitic as ever. His reign was disturbed, not only by the invasion of bands of Normans, but by that of Hungarians, or Bulgarians, a people descended from the ancient Huns. Amidst these disasters he entrusted himself to the power of Hebert count of Vermandois, one of his overgrown vassals, who, after a show of great respect, seized upon his person and imprisoned him in the castle of Peronne, where he is supposed to have been murdered.

Rodolph succeeded Charles, who, as regards the line of Charlemagne, may be termed a usurper, for he was not descended from that emperor. He filled the throne during fourteen years of perpetual war and tumult (A. D. 936), which his talents though considerable were unequal to subdue effectually. Charles the Simple had left a child named Louis, who, upon his father's death, had been transported to England, by his mother an Englishwoman. He received encouragement to return and assume

the throne of France, and became distinguished by the title of Louis d'Outre-mer, or from beyond sea.

## TALE VIII.

LOUIS IV D'OUTREMER, AND LOTHAIRE II (936).

LIKE his predecessors, he was involved in the quarrels and intrigues of the dukes and counts whom he could only rule by the policy of stirring up one against the other. Louis was called from the scene of dissension by death (A. D. 954), occasioned by his horse falling while at full speed in pursuit of a wolf.

It was now supposed that the crown would be seized on by Hugo, the duke of France, called the Great, who had been one of the potent vassals and opponents of Louis d'Outremer. This Hugo was grandson of Robert the first and son of Robert II. He had various disputes with Louis the Ultramarine, and it was expected that at his death the duke would have seized on the crown; but though he never assumed royalty himself, he was destined to be the father of the powerful family of BOURBON, so distinguished in past ages for their power, and in our own for their misfortunes. The duke Hugo took up the cause of Lothaire the son of



Louis, a boy of about fourteen years old, and conducted him to Rheims, where he directed the ceremony of his coronation, and afterwards deported himself in every respect as a dutiful subject. He defeated the count of Poitiers in a decisive battle, and gave a sharp lesson of submission, to the great vassals who might be disposed to rebel against the king. In the subsequent year he died, leaving behind him four sons. The eldest Hugo was distinguished from his father by the surname of CAPET (or Caput); but whether from the unusual size of his head, or from the extent of the powers of his understanding, is somewhat uncertain. The brothers of Hugo Capet, were Otho, Eudes and Henry, who were successively dukes of Burgundy. For Hugo himself, fate reserved a fairer diadem. Lothaire received the sons into favour, and acknowledged them as successors in the fiefs of the great Hugo Capet. But he embroiled himself in a quarrel with duke Richard of Normandy, and endeavoured to overreach him by inviting him to an interview. Duke Richard set out on his journey to the place appointed. He was met by two knights, who pitying his unsuspecting loyalty, gave him indirect notice of the design against his person. Duke Richard rewarded the knights, bestowing on one a gold chain which he wore, and on the other his sword. He instantly returned to Rouen and

took up arms against the treacherous king, and soon brought Lothaire to request a peace, which was made accordingly.

Another war broke out between Lothaire King of France, and Otho, emperor of Germany. Lothaire marched with such rapidity upon Aix-la-Chapelle (A. D. 978) that he had nearly made the emperor prisoner, who fled, leaving his dinner on the table. Otho, to revenge this insult, invaded France with sixty thousand men, and advanced to the gates of Paris, sending word to Hugh Capet, count of the City, that he would cause a mass to be sung on Montmartre by so many voices that the count should hear the sound in the isle of Paris. The king of France and Hugo Capet revenged this insult by a rapid movement to the relief of Paris, and defeated the Germans with very great slaughter. But Lothaire lost the fruit of this victory by acceding to a peace which disappointed the hopes of his subjects, and especially of the army elated by victory. He endeavoured to strengthen himself in the love and affection of his subjects, by raising to be the partner of his throne his son Louis known by the name of the Faineant, or Foolish. But Lothaire died at Rheims (A. D. 987) immediately afterwards, and not without suspicion of poison. Louis the Faineant well merited his name. He quarrelled with the Queen, and well-nigh

engaged in a new quarrel with Germany, and before he had reigned fourteen months, he died under suspicion of poison. This weak and unhappy prince was the last of the Carlovingian race, which had occupied the throne of France for upwards of two hundred and thirty years.

## TALE IX.

### THE CAPETS.

HUGH CAPET (987).

You must remember that since the institution of the monarchy of France two races of kings had existed. The long-haired monarchs, or kings of the *Merovingian race*, were the first dynasty. The *Carlovingian race*, deriving the title from Charles the Great, constituted the second. The third change of dynasty, which took place at the death of Louis le Faineant, may be attributed to the following causes.

I. Under neither of these dynasties was the right of hereditary succession well defined or understood. The brother, instead of the son, often succeeded to a deceased monarch; the consequence was, that the eyes of many princes were fixed on the same tempting object, occasioning great disputes, which led to the repeat-

ed division and subdivision of the royal dominions, weakening the body of the empire, and often terminating in civil wars.

II. The empire of Charlemagne extended from the Tiber to the Elbe, and from the Pyrenean mountains to the borders of Hungary, consisting of many nations, differing in laws, language, and manners, whom chance and the abilities of one individual had united for a time under one government; but which had a propensity to separate so soon as the great mind which held them together should be removed. Hence it was not long before the kingdom of France was separated from that of Italy, and from the empire of Germany.

III. The grants which were made to the great officers of state impoverished the monarchs of France; so that during the reign of the two or three last of the Carlovingian line almost every considerable city was in possession of some duke, count, or baron, who collected revenue from it, excepting only Laon and Rheims.

Hugo Capet had long been esteemed the first man in the kingdom in point of wealth, the second probably in point of rank, and the first in actual power. He was duke of Burgundy and Aquitaine, and count of Paris and Orleans.

He availed himself so well of these advantages that on the death of Louis le Faineant

(A. D. 987) he assembled the states of the kingdom, and by unanimous consent was chosen king of France. With a view to secure the crown in his own family, Hugo Capet proposed to associate his son Robert in the same dignity, and obtained the assent of the States to that association; he lived simply and modestly as before his accession to the throne. Charles of Lorraine, the Carlovingian heir to the crown, attempted to vindicate the succession, but was made prisoner by the elected monarch, and being thrown into prison at Orleans was detained there till his death. The son of Charles succeeded him in the Duchy of Lorraine, but died without issue; and thus the legitimate succession of the renowned Charlemagne became extinct (A. D. 991). The head of the new race of kings behaved with a wisdom and steadiness which tended to secure the succession of his family; he bent his mind to soothe all discontents, and to please every class of his subjects. He saw the danger arising from the independant state of the turbulent nobility, but he saw also that the evil was too great to be immediately remedied. He determined therefore to await silently the time when by degrees the power of the crown should rise upon their ruins. By his wisdom and firmness this king established his family with little opposition, and almost without bloodshed, on a

throne to which he had no hereditary right. He died (A. D. 996), leaving his dominions in perfect tranquillity, after a reign of eight years.

## TALE X.

### ROBERT I (996).

ROBERT, son of Hugo Capet, long associated with his father, was now sole king. He followed the sagacious and prudent measures of his predecessor, and thereby acquired the distinction of the Wise. For securing the succession he caused his son Hugh to join in the government; but he dying without issue, Robert's second son HENRY was crowned in the same manner ten years after. By this the chance of an alteration in the succession was much diminished; since the successor was in possession of the regal power before the death of his predecessor.

Robert acquired such reputation for wisdom and justice, that the emperor of Germany having some dispute with the count of Flanders, both parties agreed to refer to the decision of the king of France. King Robert's domestic government was of the same moderate and judicious character, which distinguished his foreign politics. He used his royal power

for the benefit of his subjects. His private charity was so extensive, that upwards of a thousand poor persons dined at his expense every day, and were even permitted to approach his person. He died universally regretted in 1031.

Upon the death of Robert I., the succession of Henry his eldest son was disputed by his younger brother Robert. He was encouraged by his mother who had always hated Henry. Robert took his measures so suddenly, and was so well supported, that Henry, with a retinue of only ten or eleven persons, saved himself from captivity by flying to the country of Robert, duke of Normandy. He was received in the strong castle of Fescamp, and the duke raised all his forces in defence of his liege lord, against the traitorous attempts of his younger brother. He entered France with his forces, and ravaged the country with such severity, that he obtained the nick-name of Robert le Diable, which gave rise to several fabulous stories.

The two armies were on the point of engaging in a decisive conflict, when Robert thought it better to submit to his elder brother. He did so and was rewarded with the duchy of Burgundy; after which the brothers lived in harmony together. Henry I. did not lose any opportunity of strengthening his throne; disturbances arose in different parts, and many

forfeitures of fiefs were made to the crown. Neither did Henry I. neglect to avail himself of the troubles which arose in Normandy, although he owed a great debt of gratitude to the duke, whose timely aid had, as we have seen, replaced him on the throne. Robert of Normandy, advancing now in age, began to think of making amends for those violent actions which had, in war, procured him the title of **ROBERT LE DIABLE**. For this purpose he resolved to go on a pilgrimage to the Holy Land, as was the custom of that superstitious period.

Previous to his departure he assembled a council of his prelates and high vassals, and presented to the assembly a son of his own, not born in lawful wedlock, but the child of a woman named Arlotta. This was the famous **WILLIAM**, afterwards **CONQUEROR OF ENGLAND**.

This youth was of so fair a person, and such promising talents, that his father, notwithstanding his illegitimacy, desired he should succeed him as his heir in the dukedom. He prevailed on the states of Normandy to recognise him; he recommended him to the protection of Henry of France, and Alan duke of Bretagne; and then set off on his pilgrimage, from which he never returned.

William was thus early exposed to misfortunes and dangers, which undoubtedly contributed to exercise and mature those qualities which



form the character of a great man. His feudal vassals took advantage of the minority of the sovereign, to raise troops, fortify castles and levy wars at their own pleasure. King Henry availed himself of these troubles, invaded the Norman frontiers, burnt the town of Argenton, and demolished the castle of Thilleres, under pretext that it ought not to have been fortified without his consent. William, beset with dangers on every side, thought it best to accommodate these quarrels with the king of France, even by some sacrifices, and thus for a time secured the alliance and countenance of Henry I.

When the duke of Normandy had extricated himself from these struggles, he became the object of the jealousy and displeasure of the French king, who then publicly espoused the cause of WILLIAM OF ARQUES, count of Toulouse, who laid claim to the duchy of Normandy, as son of duke Richard II., and therefore right heir to the crown on account of William's illegitimacy. Henry entered Normandy with a strong army against the young duke, but William was now of an age to display his wisdom and courage. By a rapid and sudden attack near Mortemart (A. D. 1054) he beat the French army with the loss of ten thousand men.

This and other reverses induced Henry to consent to a peace. After his pacification with the duke of Normandy, Henry turned himself

to the favorite policy of the House of Capet, the association of a successor on the throne, in order to secure stability in the royal succession. Philip, the eldest of Henry's sons, was raised, at the early age of seven years, to share the throne of his father, who died in the same year (A. D. 1060), leaving his son under the guardianship of Baldwin of Flanders, called from his worth and religion the Pious. It was in the early part of this reign that William duke of Normandy made his successful descent on England, which he conquered, and established his family on the throne.

## TALE XI.

### PHILIP I. CONQUEST OF ENGLAND (1060).

WILLIAM of Normandy, though an illegitimate son, had succeeded, as we have seen, to the dukedom of Normandy as the inheritance of his father; and had been engaged during his youth in so many disputes and wars, both against his own insurgent nobility, and the king of France, that his understanding was matured and his authority confirmed, so as to give him confidence to embark in the daring expedition against England. For this purpose, he availed himself of his relation to Baldwin, called the

Pious, count of Flanders, whose daughter he had married. Baldwin was regent of France during the minority of Philip the first, and through him, the duke of Normandy was permitted to publish proposals to all brave warriors who wished to gain honour or wealth, to join him in his enterprise. A vast number from different parts of the kingdom hastened to join an expedition seductive to the imaginations of the age. The army which the duke assembled for his daring enterprise amounted to fifty thousand horse, and ten thousand infantry. These were all chosen men. — To transport them William constructed or assembled a fleet of three thousand vessels; and to sanctify his undertaking, he obtained the benediction of the Pope. While this cloud was gathering on the coast of Normandy, the attention of HAROLD of England was withdrawn from it, by a danger yet more imminent. His brother FOSTI, after an attempt at insurrection which had been easily subdued, had fled to Harold Hardrada, king of Norway, who with a large army and the followers of the insurgent Fosti, sailed up the Humber and obtained possession of York. Harold instantly marched against them. When he arrived in face of the invaders, he endeavoured to arrange the dispute by offering terms to his brother Fosti. "But if I accept these conditions," said Fosti, "what shall be the compensation of the

king of Norway my ally?" "Seven feet of English land," answered the envoy; "or, as Hardrada is a giant, perhaps a little more." The English and Norwegians thus broke off their conference, and a dreadful battle ensued at Stamford near York; (A. D. 1066) the armies fought with incredible valour, and there was much slaughter on both sides; but Harold of Norway lost his life, while Harold of England, though enfeebled by the loss of many of his best troops, remained victorious. But he was instantly called upon to meet more formidable adversaries, in WILLIAM and his army who had arrived at Pevensey. Unhappily for Harold, too little respite was allowed him to recruit his forces after so bloody an action. Three days only intervened between the defeat of the Norwegian and the arrival of William on the English coast.

The duke of Normandy was speedily apprised that Harold was approaching at the head of an army flushed with victory. Both princes met on the fatal and memorable field of Hastings. The battle was sanguinary, but Harold being mortally wounded by an arrow, the Saxons gave way. The death of Harold terminated a conflict, one of the most obstinate as well as the most important in the annals of England. Thus the immediate success of William's expedition was insured; for by submission or force, the conqueror annexed to his dominions the

whole kingdom of England ; and though vexed by frequent rebellions among his new subjects, and even among the Normans themselves , disappointed with the share of spoil assigned to them , he held with a firm grasp , the advantages which he had gained by his wisdom and courage.

The system of feudal law was introduced into England by the conquest, and the Norman knights and nobles received grants of the richest manors and baronies of the crown , to be held of the king by military service. Laws peculiarly vexatious to the lower orders of English were introduced, instead of the mild government exercised by the native Saxon monarchs. The harassed natives were easily driven into rebellion, which answered so far the purpose of the conqueror, as it gave him a pretext for new confiscations by which he enriched his followers. In a word the whole kingdom was divided between the Normans, who were the lords and gentry, and the Saxons, who, with a few exceptions, became the cultivators of the soil. Philip I. of France was not a little mortified to find that by this fortunate attempt against England , his vassal the duke of Normandy had become king of a realm as important as his own, and which was governed by the conqueror with more absolute sway than France itself by the descendant of Capet. Philip was determined

therefore to shake this new empire. He not only entered into a war with the new king of England, but intrigued with his eldest son Robert, whom he encouraged to rebel against his father William. The pretext for the French hostilities and the unnatural conduct of the son, was, that when William undertook his English conquest, he engaged, in case of his being successful, to resign to his son his Norman dominions. It is probable that if such a promise was made, it was given only to allay the fears of the French court, that William by succeeding in his expedition would become too powerful a vassal; but it had become impossible for him to yield up Normandy, without incurring the risk of losing England also, since it was only in his power to defeat the insurrections of the English by the aid of the soldiery which he drew from his native dominions.

Under the pretence that William had failed in his promise, his son Robert, a rash young man, rebelled against his father, and held out against him, in the small fortified place of Gerberoi, a station very convenient for the annoyance of Normandy, and where PHILIP placed his young ally for that very purpose.

William, incensed at the rebellious conduct of his son, hastened to lay siege to the place of his retreat. The garrison made a sortie, headed by prince Robert in person. This leader, one

of the bravest men of his time, singled out for his antagonist, a knight who appeared in front of the besiegers in armour, and having his face covered by the vizor of his helmet. The onset of the young and fiery prince bore down his antagonist, horse and man; and Robert placing his lance to the throat of the dismounted cavalier, would have taken his life, had he not recognised, by the accents in which the answer was returned, that it was his own father.

Shocked at this discovery, he flung himself from his own horse, and assisting his father to rise, held the stirrup to him till he mounted in his stead.

But notwithstanding an incident so affecting, a reconciliation between the father and son was not perfected. Robert still expected that his father would resign to him some part of the Norman territories; but he continued to expect in vain. The conqueror answered that he was not willing to throw off his clothes before he went to bed, or part with his dominions before his death. — An open war which ensued with France cost William his life. He caught a fever by directing in person the conflagration of the town of Mantes (A. D. 1087). He did all in his power to punish his son Robert for his undutiful conduct, by bequeathing the crown of England to his second son WILLIAM called RUFUS or the Red. But although incensed

against his eldest son, the Conqueror left him the duchy of Normandy, chiefly, it is supposed, because he doubted whether the people would submit to any other prince than Robert whom they loved. During these transactions PHILIP I. of France was engaged in petty wars, by means of which, while affecting to mediate between his dissatisfied peers, he contrived to weaken the contending parties, and to strengthen the crown at their expense.

At length, the king saw fit in some degree to appease these disturbances, by associating in the office and authority of monarch of France, Louis, his son by his queen, and by his activity and judicious exertions tranquillity was in some measure restored. This active prince repaired the neglect of his father, and marched with rapidity against the vassals of the crown, who were perpetually in insurrection, and thus gradually acquired general respect and popularity. Bertrade, the king's mistress, was the only person to whom the young prince's conduct was unacceptable. She exerted her influence over her royal lover, against his son, on whose exertions, rather than his own, the safe government of the kingdom depended. When Louis learned his father's prejudice against him, he withdrew for a while to the court of England, and Philip was induced to write a letter to the king of that country, in-



stigating him to murder or imprison the young prince. The advice was rejected with disdain by the king of England, who dismissed his guest safe and honourably. The dangers of Louis increased on his return to France, for poison was administered to him by his father's concubine, which had so much effect on his constitution that though he recovered his health, his complexion remained ever afterwards a deadly pale. This new injury well nigh provoked Louis to break entirely with his father, but Philip aware of the danger caused his mistress, Bertrade, to make the most humble submissions to the prince. Philip died (A. D. 1108) at the age of sixty, leaving his son Louis, with diminished resources, to struggle against the evils which his father's imprudent government had brought upon the country. In this age of wonderful events, the attention of all men was attracted by the Crusades, a war of a religious character, by the christians against the Asiatics. The origin of these extraordinary wars arose, as great events often do, from the efforts of a single individual. I will give you a short sketch of them. While Palestine, or the Holy Land, remained a part of the Grecian empire, the approach of the european pilgrims to the holy places, was facilitated by the christian governors of the provinces where they lay. Their churches were enriched by gifts, and

became the resort of many persons of consequence, from the most distant parts of christendom, to worship at their shrines.

Even when the Holy Land fell under the power of the Saracens, that people felt their own interest in permitting (under payment of a certain tax) the concourse of European pilgrims to Jerusalem and other places.

The Mahometan possessors of Palestine therefore made the access tolerably easy, as long as the pilgrims were not unwilling to pay the tolls. Thus the Califs or successors of Mahomet, derived a certain importance from being masters of Jerusalem; and Haroun Alraschid, one of the most important of those princes, to conciliate Charlemagne, with whom he maintained a friendly intercourse, sent him the keys of the Holy Sepulchre.

But when the Turks became masters of Jerusalem the treatment of the christians was in every respect different. They preferred the pleasure of insulting and maltreating them, and not only harassed them by exorbitant contributions, but often added personal ill usage. These evils at length made so strong an impression on the spirit of one single man that, like fire alighting among materials highly combustible, the flame spread throughout all Europe. This person was **PETER** called **THE HERMIT**. He had himself been a pilgrim in Palestine,

and could bear testimony as an eye witness to the atrocities of the Turks, and the sufferings of the Christians. He repaired from court to court, from castle to castle, from city to city, setting forth the shame done to Christendom, in leaving the holiest places connected with her religion, in possession of a barbarous foe. He appealed to the religion of one sovereign, to the fears of another, and to the spirit of chivalry possessed by them all.

Urban II., then Pope, saw the importance of uniting the European nations in a task so honourable to religion, and so likely to give importance to the Roman See. The pontiff himself set forth the advantage and necessity of laying all worldly tasks aside, until the Holy Sepulchre should be free from the heathen usurpers. To all, however criminal, who should lend aid to this holy warfare, Urban promised a full remission of their sins here, and an indubitable portion of the joys of heaven hereafter.

Thousands devoted themselves to the service of God, as they imagined, and to the recovery of Palestine with its shrines from the hands of the Turks. Each, to mark his devotion to this holy undertaking, put the form of a cross upon the shoulder of his cloak of a different colour from that of the garment itself. The undertaking was thence called a crusade, and those who joined in its ranks were termed cru-

saders. The extraordinary enthusiasm circulated with amazing rapidity, and was every where received with the utmost interest and applause. The number which assumed the cross amounted probably to half a million of individuals. A very great proportion of this multitude were ignorant men, totally unaccustomed to warfare. We may form some idea of the low rank from which these men were gathered when we see, that although the strength of every army at that time consisted in cavalry, this miscellaneous gathering, though composed of many thousand infantry, contained only *eight* horsemen. This tumultuous rabble did not wait for the great princes who had engaged in the expedition, but resolved to set out on the journey by themselves. To insure divine protection they placed **PETER THE HERMIT** at their head.

The leading squadrons were followed by immense bands, composed of similar materials, and they traversed Germany in separate bodies, committing in the progress, unheard of disorders, and at length reached Hungary, then inhabited by the remains of the Huns and Bulgarians. These fierce people, though professing the Christian faith, finding that the military pilgrims spoiled their villages and seized their provisions, took arms against them, and destroyed so many of the crusaders, that only about one third of the original host of the Her-

mit Peter, escaped into the Greek territories.

Here the Emperor Alexius endeavoured to prevail on them to wait for reinforcements from Europe, but their enthusiasm induced them to rush on to their own destruction. They entered Asia Minor, and Soliman, the Sultan of Antioch, decoyed them into the plains of Nice, where they fell beneath the arrows of the Turks, and by the diseases of the climate. Thus three hundred thousand champions of the Cross lost their lives, before the kings and nobles of Europe, who had taken the same vows, had been able to accomplish their preparations. There remained however behind, a well disciplined host, selected from the four principal nations of Europe. —

L. The French took the Cross with all the eagerness of their national character, and sent as many adventurers as all Europe besides. Philip their king immersed in pleasures, and unable to separate himself from his favorite Bertrade, evaded taking the engagement. Their best soldiers followed the steps of Hugo (called the Great, brother to Philip), and of Godfrey of Bouillon called duke of Brabant, who was afterwards chosen chief of the crusade. The noblemen of Germany did not take arms in the same proportion as other countries; they termed them fools, for going on so idle an expedition. England sent many barons, who

arrayed themselves under Robert, called **CURSTOS**, or short-hose, the eldest son of William the Conqueror, whom he had succeeded as duke of Normandy.

Such was the composition of the first crusade, a formidable armament, whose numbers were almost incalculable. They adopted different roads for the more easy collecting of forage and provisions. Hugo, brother to the king of France, was defeated, and made prisoner on the road by the Bulgarians, and sent to Constantinople; the other divisions of the Crusading army arrived safely under the walls of that city.

**ALEXIUS**, then emperor of Greece, had expected that the auxiliary forces would extend to no more than a moderate body of men-at-arms; instead of which, he now saw himself begirt by armed legions from every corner of Europe. He at first refused to let so great a body of armed men pass into his Asiatic dominions, even to attack his enemies the Turks; nor did he grant the crusaders a free passage over the Bosphorus which divides Europe from Asia, until they would consent to take an oath of fealty to him. Godfrey of Bouillon, and the other leaders of the crusade consented, rather than multiply the difficulties of their situation; but it was with difficulty that the numerous and haughty chiefs were induced to take the oath. After much time wasted, and many pro-

nises, made and broken on the part of the Emperor, respecting supplies of provisions, wines, and other necessities for the army; the first crusade transported by the Greek shipping to the shores of Asia, began seriously to enter upon their holy warfare.

They experienced numerous obstacles, and, in the various battles they were obliged to fight, lost great numbers of their men, but at length the remains of this mighty crusade advanced on Palestine (A. D. 1099), and besieged the holy city of Jerusalem, so long the object of their vows, hopes, and wishes. The place, naturally strong, was defended by thick walls and bulwarks as well as by rocks, and eminences. The Crusaders who remained fit for service, out of a host, which numbered its warriors by hundreds of thousands, did not amount to forty thousand men. Aladin, lieutenant of the Egyptian Calif, commanded an equal number of defenders. The christians had therefore a difficult task before them, especially as they were in want of water, tents, and military engines. They at first attempted to take the city by main force, and made a general assault on the walls; but they were beaten off with loss and dishonour. The siege was however pressed with vigour; the chiefs endured their losses with firmness, and their experience found supplies for their wants. Two wooden turrets,

constructed upon wheels, were formed by some Genoese workmen to be advanced to the wall; the first under the command of Raymond, count of Toulouse, was set on fire, and consumed by the besieged. The second, under the immediate superintendence of Godfrey of Bouillon, was with better fortune rolled up to the walls, where, as it overlooked the parapet, the arrows from the archers within it, cleared the ramparts of the defenders. A draw-bridge then dropt between the tower and the wall—the attacking army poured over it, and obtained possession of the city.

An indiscriminate massacre commenced, in which many thousand Mahometans were slain. When this pitiless slaughter (which lasted three days) was over, the victors with a devotion strangely contrasted with their late cruelty, joined in a solemn pilgrimage to the Holy Sepulchre, where loud hymns of praise, and devout tears of penitence, were enthusiastically poured forth as an acceptable offering to Heaven, by the very men whose hands were red with the blood spilt in an unprovoked massacre.

Godfrey of Bouillon, the foremost in obtaining possession of the city, was now declared king; he would however only accept the title of defender of the Holy Sepulchre, and modestly assumed a crown of thorns instead of gold.



In about a fortnight, the prince was called upon to defend his newly conquered metropolis against the Calif of Egypt, who was advancing in person to revenge its capture. They met in the valley of ASCALON, where the Egyptians were totally defeated. In this manner was established the kingdom of Jerusalem, which endured about a century after its establishment till its destruction by Saladin in 1187. During that period that state underwent so many civil convulsions as rendered it unfit to defend itself against the Mahometans, who were perpetually bent upon recovering a territory which they considered as their own. Various attempts were however made to support the Christians in their defence. One was by the erection of two great societies, or communities of knights, who took upon them a vow of celibacy, of poverty, and of obedience to their spiritual superiors: but were in other respects, soldiers sworn to defend the Temple of Jerusalem against the Pagans. This order of military monks did great service in the protection of the Holy Land. But when these Templars, as they were called, became wealthy and powerful, their manners became corrupted and dissolute; they were accused of meditating enterprises dangerous to christian monarchs, and to christianity in general; so that the order of Templars was suppressed about the year 1312, two hundred years after

It had been erected. The other association was called the knights Hospitallers of St. John of Jerusalem, whose first vow was providing hospitality for pilgrims; though, like the Templars, they chiefly devoted themselves to military exploits. Besides the support of these two warlike fraternities formed for the preservation of the Holy Land, other crusades were formed from time to time. These will be mentioned in the course of our story. In the mean time we may conclude our sketch of the first crusade by mentioning the death of its hero, Godfrey of Bouillon (A. D. 1100), whose virtues and talents had succeeded in giving a temporary appearance of strength and consistency to the dominions conquered by his valour. Philip died in 1108, leaving on the throne LOUIS LE GROS.

## TALE XII.

LOUIS VI AND LOUIS VII (1108).

WHILE the princes and barons of the first crusade were establishing, in Palestine, the little kingdom of Jerusalem, various alterations took place in Europe, by which the rights of the absentees were materially affected. No one suffered more than Robert duke of Normandy. To furnish himself for the crusade, he had pawned

the duchy of Normandy, to his brother William Rufus, for a large sum of money; and while he was employed in the East, William was privately engaged in rendering permanent the temporary interest which the mortgage gave him of the duchy; and it soon became evident that he would not easily renounce the right he had acquired over it. But the death of William Rufus, introduced a third son of the conqueror. This was Henry the youngest, whom his brothers, both Robert and William, had treated with considerable severity after their father's death, and had refused him every appanage becoming his rank. Civil war ensued among them, and Henry began to acquire partisans even in his brother's dukedom. But the sudden return of Robert recalled to their allegiance the wavering faith of his vassals.

A short truce did not prevent the brothers engaging in a war, which was decided by the battle of Tenchebraie, in Normandy, in which duke Robert was defeated and made prisoner. He was thrown into perpetual imprisonment, but allowed in his captivity all the pleasures of the table, etc. He was a prince of the most undaunted courage, and had done many famous things at the sieges of Antioch and Jerusalem, but he was unfit to govern.

The kingdom of England and the dukedom of Normandy being now united in the person

of Henry, excited the jealousy of the king of France. There were, on that account, several wars between Henry of England and Louis, who had acquired the surname of Gross, from his size. The most formidable war which the latter monarch incited against the king of England, had for its pretext, the interest of the youth, William Clito. This was the only son of the captive Robert, duke of Normandy, in whose behalf the king of France not only took arms himself, but instigated several of the great vassals of the crown to do the same. A great number of the barons and knights of Normandy were privately enlisted in the design of placing the ducal coronet upon the head of this deserving son. Henry passed over to Normandy to defend his duchy against his nephew, and took with him a gallant army of English, as well as Normans. Louis at the head of the forces of the confederates of young William, also known by the name of Longsword from the weapon which he wielded, advanced towards Rouen, and found himself unexpectedly in front of the English.

Young Longsword charged the van of the english army so fiercely, as to throw them into disorder. But Henry advanced with his household troops and restored the engagement. The king of France lost his horse and his standard. Henry restored the steed to its royal owner, but

kept the banner as an honourable trophy. This courtesy led to a peace highly honourable to the king of England.

Louis of France, at this peace, conceded a point of great consequence to the king of England. Henry had refused to pay homage for Normandy, as had been the custom, remarking that such rendering of homage was unworthy of a royal person. Louis now finding the war turn against him, reluctantly consented that William, the only son of Henry, should be invested with the fief of Normandy, and do homage for the same, although aware doubtless, that Henry would retain all the power and wealth of the duchy. But the young prince William perished at sea, and thus the plan of accommodation fell to the ground. The king of France, as Henry was now without a son, renewed his intrigues with William Clito. He caused this young prince to be married to a daughter of the count of Anjou, with whom he received in dowry, the county of Maine. Established thus, in a powerful seigniory near the frontiers of Normandy, William Clito found it easy to form, once more, a great confederacy against Henry, among the nobles of that dukedom. The king of England however obtained a complete and easy victory over the insurgent nobles. Triumphant in Normandy, Henry now sought revenge on the king of France, and

used for this purpose the assistance of Henry V., emperor of Germany, to whom Matilda, the monarch of England's only remaining child, had been for some years married. He assembled an army from the German states, and threatened to enter France. But the invasion of France by a German army was not viewed with indifference by the great vassals of the former country. Even the barons who had private quarrels with their monarch Louis, or private confederacies with Henry of England, joined the former upon this occasion, and he found no difficulty in assembling an army of two hundred thousand men.

To give them additional ardour, it is said, that for the first time, the Oriflamme, or Great Standard of France was displayed. This was a flag of crimson attached to a gilded lance, from which it drew its name, which implies a golden flame. The emperor Henry unprepared to encounter such an army, retired before the Oriflamme, and the immense body of men assembled round it. He died soon after this, and Henry of England recalled to his own court the widowed empress Matilda, his daughter, and formed the bold plan of appointing her the heiress of his dominions as the sole successor of his blood. The feudal custom seemed to exclude the empress Matilda from succeeding her father in the dukedom of Normandy; and in England

the settlement of the crown on a woman was yet unheard of. Henry however induced the parliament to agree to his daughter's succession.

Amidst ceaseless, though petty wars, and frequent negotiations, Louis VI, now becoming aged, and his corpulence which had procured him the surname of the Gross, increasing, he endeavoured, according to the custom of the house of Capet, to supply his own deficiencies by associating (A. D. 1129) with him on the throne, his eldest son Louis, a youth of great hopes; but his father did not long enjoy his assistance in the affairs of government, grown too weighty for his own management. Riding in the streets of Paris, not many months after his coronation, a black pig ran between his horse's feet, caused the young king a severe fall (A. D. 1131), and he did not survive many days.

Deprived of his eldest son, the king raised to the throne his second son called LOUIS LE JEUNE, in order to distinguish him from his father. After a short time, the old king finding his health decline surrendered his power altogether to his son. When he delivered his signet to him he said, "*Take this symbol of my sovereign power; but never forget it is only a public trust for the exercise of which you will hereafter be called to the strictest account before the King of kings.*" After this he never again assumed the ornaments of royalty. Yet he lived

to witness an event of the deepest interest in his family.

This was the marriage of his son Louis with Eleonor, daughter of William X. duke of Aquitaine and Guienne. On her marriage with Louis VII., she was crowned queen of France, and shortly afterwards Louis LE Gros died (A. D. 1187).

The reign of Louis the young as he was called, being eighteen years old, commenced, with violent commotions among the nobility and great vassals of the crown. These dignitaries thought the minority of the prince a convenient time to recover a part of their power. Thibault, earl of Champagne, one of the most artful intriguers, and turbulent agitators of the period, engaged himself in forming conspiracies among the nobility, for diminishing the authority of the crown. Enraged at the intrigues of this factious nobleman, the king ravaged his county of Champagne with unrelenting severity. The town of Vitry was taken by assault; and the cathedral containing thirteen hundred persons, who had fled thither as to an inviolable sanctuary, was delivered to the flames, and all who were within it perished.

This cruel deed was scarcely done but it was repented; and besides the massacre and conflagration, Louis conceived that he had other sins to atone for. The conviction that he



had committed a great and most inhuman crime distracted the mind of the young prince. He opened his conscience to Bernard abbot of Clairvaux ( afterwards saint Bernard ) : this churchman, availing himself of the remorse which agitated the king's heart, took the opportunity to persuade him, that the best and only atonement, would be a crusade to the Holy Land undertaken with a force strong enough to restore the christian kingdom of Jerusalem.

Upon the earnest exhortation of saint Bernard LOUIS LE JEUNE was induced to assume the cross, and determine on an expedition to the Holy Land, with the whole strength of his kingdom. At a great parliament or assembly of the representatives of the french nation, which was, on account of the number who attended it, held in the open air, Louis took from the hands of Bernard a cross, which had been consecrated at Rome, for his particular use, and many of the great vassals followed the example of their sovereign. The gentry and nobility took arms in emulation of each other; and those who assumed the cross, sent a distaff and scissars to those who did not, to upbraid them with cowardice and effeminacy.

Among the French host was the queen of France herself; she was attended by a large band of the youth of both sexes. Some gallant damsels were mounted on horseback in the

masculine fashion ; while a chosen band of the gayest and most noble young men of France, assumed the title of queen Eleanor's guard. Louis left his dominions during his absence to the care of his relative and favorite the Earl of Vermandois, and to Suger, abbot of St-Denis.

The crusade now began to set forward. The Germans were the first who advanced into Greece, and they were received by the reigning emperor Manuel Comnenus with as much apparent good will, but still more secret and active hostility, than his predecessor Alexius had nourished against the first crusade. This treacherous prince assigned them false guides by whom they were induced to take up their quarters on the banks of the unwholesome Melas, a river which consists only of mud during summer and forms a sea in the winter. No secret artifice was spared by which the formidable numbers of these simple devotees might be diminished.

The host of France under its young monarch now arrived in Asia, and by precaution, or good fortune, escaped many of the snares which had been spread for the Germans, by the treachery of the Greeks. At length, with forces totally discouraged, and greatly diminished, the German emperor took the resolution of falling back on his friend and ally, the king of France, whose army, as yet, maintained an

appearance of order. The two monarchs embraced each other with tears of sorrow. It was then proposed that they should proceed in company towards Palestine, but the German troops were so much reduced that the emperor could no longer remain at their head, and he determined upon returning to Constantinople.

The march of the French army was now opposed by a large body of Turks, on the opposite bank of the Mæander, determined to defend the passage of that river. It was not fordable, nor was there any apparent mode of crossing. At the command of the king the vanguard plunged gallantly into the stream, and fortunately finding it shallower than had been reported, half swimming, half dragging each other forward, they attained the opposite bank. The Turks, too much astonished for resistance, experienced a decisive and bloody defeat. But the battle on the Mæander was the beginning and well nigh the end of the success of the Christians. The French marching in two divisions in order to cross a ridge of mountains near Laodicea, Louis, who conducted the rear-guard in person, directed the officer who led the van, to halt on the summit of the chain of hills, till the second division should come up; but he, tempted by the supposed absence of the enemy, and the fertility of the plain beneath, marched down, leaving the summit undefended,

and giving the Turks, who were on the alert, an opportunity of occupying the passes in great force.

When Louis reached the place where he expected to rejoin the van-guard of his army, he found himself involved in a numerous ambuscade of the Turks, who attacked him unexpectedly. The Christians thus taken by surprise, were thrown into disorder, especially as the broken and craggy ground was totally unfit for the action of heavy armed cavalry, which was the flower of their army. The unfortunate Louis displayed great personal courage, and rallied his forces by his own example. He was extricated from his perilous situation by the counter-march of part of his van-guard, but he had lost in this unfortunate affair, more than twenty thousand men, in killed, wounded and prisoners.

The following day Louis proceeded to Attalia (the capital city of Pamphylia). The inhabitants who were Christians, though tributary to the Turks, dared neither oppose, nor assist the invaders; but in order to rid themselves of them, they offered to convey them to Antioch by sea. The king therefore and part of his army went on ship-board, and set sail for Antioch, which was now governed by Raymond de Poitiers, a Latin prince, who received the king with demonstrations of respect and kindness.

Louis however regarded his attentions and civility with distrust, conceiving it to be Raymond's secret object to obtain the assistance of the French troops, in protecting and enlarging his own territory, and for that purpose to delay their journey to Palestine.

While the choicest part of the French army which accompanied Louis himself had reached Antioch, those who were left behind at Attalia made repeated attempts, both by land and sea, to rejoin their monarch; but they were unsuccessful; and so humbled was the pride and resolution of the soldiers of the cross, that three or four thousand of their number not only surrendered to the Asiatics, but also embraced the Mahometan faith, and fought against the cause they had engaged to defend. The few of the army which reached Antioch, came as stragglers unfit for military service.

Meantime, besides the grief and mortification caused by these misfortunes, the mind of Louis had subject of domestic anxiety, or at least he thought so. He became jealous of his queen and of Raymond of Antioch, and left that city in haste, to rejoin his army taking his wife with him. He soon after entered Palestine, and obtained some partial success, which induced him, with the assistance of the Templars and the knights of St. John, to attack the city of Damascus. But the strength of the

Crusaders was wasted, and misapplied : success became impossible, and the siege of Damascus was raised.

Repeated disasters and disappointments had now subdued the hopes of the Crusaders ; and they all prepared to abandon an enterprise which Providence seemed to oppose. The emperor Conrade and his Germans first withdrew from the scene, and reached their own country without further disaster. Next, the French nobles began to retire individually, or, as it were, to steal back one by one, from the ill-omened enterprise. King Louis alone seemed yet to nourish a lingering hope, and it was not till he was alarmed with news of commotions in France, that he resolved to abandon Palestine, and return to his kingdom with the miserable remains of his army.

### TALE XIII.

FAILURE OF THE CRUSADE. RETURN OF LOUIS VII  
(1148).

The excellent administration of Suger, the abbot of St. Denis, had maintained the affairs of Louis le Jeune in a pretty good condition at home, notwithstanding the absence of the king with the great portion of his forces. But when the news arrived that almost the whole of that

army had perished, without a single feat that could add honour to their nation, the general voice accused the king of incapacity; and it was suggested that he should be dethroned, and sent to a cloister.

The COMTE OF DREUX, brother of king Louis, had returned from the Holy Land a short time before him, and had greatly increased the national displeasure, by intrigues, which had for their object his brother's crown. These dissensions were with some difficulty arranged, when the return of Louis rendered the comte of Dreux's plans desperate. But there remained the rooted quarrel between the king, and his wealthy and haughty wife queen Eleanor, and each began to think of a divorce.

A council of the French national church was held at Baugence, and having consulted on the subject, decided that the nearness of blood of the royal couple was sufficient pretext to declare their marriage unlawful, though it had already subsisted more than sixteen years, and two daughters were by the sentence rendered illegitimate.

The decree of the council of Baugence was confirmed by the Pope; and the marriage was formally annulled. Eleanor was reinvested as heiress to her late father in Guienne, Gascony, Poitou and other extensive territories belonging to his dukedom of Aquitaine: thus having once more the power of bestowing ample property

with her hand, she fixed her attention on Henry Plantagenet, eldest son of Matilda, sole surviving child of Henry I., king of England, and heir to his mother's title to his grandfather's kingdom. You cannot have forgotten that Henry had declared Matilda, the widow of the emperor Henry V., of Germany, heiress of his kingdom; and strengthened her right by choosing for her second husband Geoffrey Plantagenet, count of Anjou.

When Eleanor cast her eyes upon Henry Plantagenet, he was duke of Normandy, count of Anjou, Maine and Touraine, and therefore no unfit mate for the heiress of Aquitaine; and no doubt the brilliant prospect of the crown of England, to which Henry had so just a claim, had a great share in recommending him to the ambitious Eleanor.

By her union with Henry, which soon took place (A. D. 1152), Eleanor conferred on him the two duchies of Guienne and Gascony, with the earldom of Poitou, and their extensive dependencies.

Louis became alarmed, when he perceived to what a height of power Henry Plantagenet had been raised by this unexpected match. He became impatient to weaken, or rather to ruin him, and he engaged in a league with his brother the earl of Dreux, with Eustace, son of king Stephen, with the earl of Blois, and with



Geoffrey Plantagenet, Henry's own brother, for the purpose of despoiling the young duke of Normandy of his dominions; and of dividing them among themselves; but this iniquitous league had no better success than it deserved.

Henry was soon after established on the English throne by the sudden death of his competitor, Stephen, whose whole reign had been a continuation of civil war. Thus possessing as much real power as Louis, and more wealth, Henry II. proposed a match betwixt his eldest son prince Henry, and Margaret daughter of Louis le Jeune by his second wife Constantia; princess of Castille, whom he had married after the declaration of the council of Baugence had annulled his union with Eleanor of Aquitaine.

The prince and princess were children; but it was customary in those days to arrange contracts of marriage between persons of their station, many years before they could be carried into effect.

The english monarch was also cautiously enlarging his territories, and adding to his power. Thus in 1159, he resolved to assert a pretended right to the city and earldom of Toulouse, as a dependency of the dukedom of Aquitaine, which had been pledged to the present earl by queen Eleanor's father, and which, in quality of her husband, he now claimed.

This he determined to maintain by the arms of Normandy, Guienne and England.

Raymond count of Toulouse, the crown vassal, being thus threatened, applied to the king of France, whose sister he had married, for protection against a prince whose forces he was unable to resist; and Louis on offering his interposition, threw himself into the city of Toulouse, with a handful of soldiers, where he raised his own standard. Henry's forces were in readiness for the siege, and most likely he might, by a sudden attack, have made himself master of the city, and of the person of Louis, thus imprudently hazarded within it. The question was debated in Henry's council, when some statesmen insisted on the respect, which was due to the lord paramount; and Henry reflected, that he himself was at the head of an army assembled only by his feudal power, and that it would be perilous to show in his own person any contempt for that fealty to the superior, upon which his own authority rested. Upon the whole therefore, he thought it prudent to abandon the siege of Toulouse (A. D. 1159), alleging as a motive, the respect he entertained for the person of the Lord Paramount who was within the city. Louis was flattered by his moderation, and peace was shortly afterwards made, on condition of Henry retaining considerable conquests made at the expense

of the count of Toulouse, to whom he granted, at the request, as he carefully stated, of the king of France, a truce for the short space only of one single year.

Hitherto there had been little sincerity in the apparent good understanding between Henry and Louis; and many wars were occasioned by it. In all these disputes, Henry, more prudent, more wealthy, and more fortunate, had, either by arms, or negotiation enlarged his own territories at the expense of those of Louis; but he was doomed to experience many embarrassments and misfortunes in the latter part of his life.

Louis of France was not idle during an interval when Henry's usual good fortune seemed to desert him; nor was he slow in seeking a cause of quarrel, or means to prosecute it. He at first pretended displeasure against Henry for having caused his eldest son to be crowned in England as successor to that kingdom, while the wife of that young prince, Margaret princess of France, was yet in her native country. But Henry deprived Louis of that pretence by expressing his willingness to repeat the ceremony of coronation. The king of France then adopted a more subtle mode of assailing an adversary who had proved too powerful for him while he followed the ordinary rules of open hostility.

Louis requested the presence of his daughter and son-in-law, the younger Henry, for some time at the French court. The English princes of the Norman race were never remarkable for domestic affection, and, from the time of the Conqueror, it had been no unusual thing in that house, to see the son in arms against the father. Louis therefore found no great difficulty in insinuating into the mind of the younger Henry that his father kept the throne too long, and did not indulge him, though crowned, with a sufficient share of independant power. When the young prince returned to England, he instilled the same spirit of unnatural ambition into his brothers, Geoffrey and Richard (afterwards the renowned *Cœur de Lion*).

John, the fourth and youngest prince, was not of an age to take a share in the family quarrel; but queen Eleanor, their mother, had been for some time dissatisfied with the small share which the king allowed to her, in his councils, and affections; and took all the means in her power to inflame the bad passions of her three elder sons, and induce them to unite in a league with the king of France against their father. The king of Scotland was engaged in the same confederacy, and several of the great barons of England were ripe for rebellion. This formidable league was entered into at a time when Henry was on bad terms with the Pope, and

odious to all the priests on account of the death of Becket, who had been assassinated at Canterbury by some of Henry's favourites. But he had been a prudent economist, and now made the treasures he had amassed, the means of saving his throne, without trusting to those vassals who might have betrayed his cause.

He hired a large body of German mercenaries, who for many years had gained a living by their swords, and who were ready to embrace the cause of any prince in Europe who required their services and was able and willing to pay for them. Henry immediately took the field : he opposed himself everywhere to his enemies, defeated the rebels, and soon had the pleasure to see Louis le Jeune retreat before him. He then marched to the relief of Rouen which was closely besieged, and compelled the united armies of France and Flanders to retire from before it. This chain of events had a great effect upon the king of France. He sent ambassadors to treat for peace, to which Henry, satisfied with his success, willingly assented. He settled liberal appanages upon the three young princes, Henry, Richard, and Geoffrey; and endeavoured to secure their affections, by allowances of domains and revenues. The greatest satisfaction which Louis received from the peace, was a hope that the king of England might be induced to join him in a crusade.

Henry apparently consented to this wild proposal; and the Pope having joined his solicitations to those of Louis, it was not in his power to evade the summons. Regulations were accordingly adopted between the two monarchs for the preparations; there is little doubt however, that Henry was secretly determined to take every opportunity that might occur, to postpone, and finally to avoid this useless and perilous expedition. The French king on the contrary, was perfectly serious, and determined to provide for the government of his kingdom in his absence, by crowning his son Philip, a youth of the highest expectations, as his associate and successor in the French throne. A singular event prevented the ceremony. The young prince, Philip was separated from his attendants, while on a hunting party in the forest of Compiègne, and wandered there all night. The uneasiness of mind he had undergone caused a dangerous illness, from which he was scarcely recovered, when his father was struck with a palsy. The coronation of Philip took place soon afterwards, though his father could not be present. In the next year (A. D. 1180), Louis le Jeune died. He was a prince of many excellent qualities; brave, well-meaning, temperate, and honest; but he was neither a general nor a politician.

## TALE XIV.

PHILIP II. (1180).

PHILIP, the son of Louis le Jeune, succeeded his father : he possessed so many noble qualities, that in French history, he is distinguished from the other monarchs of the same name by the imperial title of Augustus, and it was chiefly by his means that the royal house of France recovered that influence which, during the life of Louis, had been in a great measure overshadowed, by the predominance of the house of Anjou, whose power, carefully augmented by the wisdom of Henry II., had placed that monarch in the situation rather of a rival than a vassal of the king of France.

On Philip's accession to the throne he was not yet fifteen years of age ; yet his first public measure was one of a more severe character, than could have been expected from so young a monarch. All jesters, jugglers, and buffoons, whose idle occupation it was to encourage dissipation and misuse of time, were banished from the court. By this, his people learned that their young king proposed to remove from about his person, all incentives to the light taste, and unprofitable follies of youth.

In another of his early measures, Philip consulted, in an eminent degree, the advantage of his subjects and of his realm. The constant wars of France, had given occasion to the association of numerous vagrant bands of men, whose profession was arms, and who, without any regard to the cause in which they served, were ready to engage in behalf of any prince who was willing to employ them.

But though it was a prompt and useful resource to princes in time of war, nothing could be more oppressive to the people in peace, than the existence of such numerous bands of various nations, leading an idle and dissolute life, at the expense of the oppressed peasantry; and breaking every law of society without a possibility of bringing them to justice, except by a pitched battle. They frequently laid the country under contribution, and obliged the cities, on peril of assault and pillage, to pay large sums for their maintenance. These troops of lawless depredators were distinguished by the appellations of *Cotteraux*, *Brabançons*, *Routiers* and *Tavardins*. Philip commanded his soldiers to assist the burghers of the good towns against these disorderly freebooters, and he himself defeated them in one great action, in which nine thousand were slain.

By these exertions, this plague of the country



was in a great measure checked, although it continued until a much later period of French history. Philip also compelled the citizens of the large towns to pave their streets, and to surround their cities with walls and fortifications, so as to ensure the power of repelling the attacks of these roving brigands. These measures gave a favourable character to his reign. His intercourse with his contemporary princes, was not so praiseworthy.

It must be supposed that Henry of England entertained no small apprehension of the increasing influence of a young prince who with better judgment than his father Louis, entertained the same jealousy of the overgrown power of his vassal of Normandy. These apprehensions became yet more alarming, when the king of England found that his children, Henry, Richard, and Geoffrey, to whom John the youngest of the brothers, now joined himself, were engaged in intrigues with the king of France, in order to obtain a portion of Henry's English dominions, as a reward for lending their assistance to Philip, to strip their father of the whole. Embarrassing as were these unnatural cabals, the manner in which the king of England was freed from them in the case of Henry, his eldest son, was yet more afflicting to the father. An express brought the news that his son had indeed repented of his filial ingratitude, but

it was accompanied with the tidings that the youth lay on his death bed, and implored his father's blessing and forgiveness. So great was the king's suspicion of those about the younger Henry that he was afraid to intrust his person in their hands even upon this pressing occasion. Suppressing, therefore, his desire to fly to the sick-bed of his son, the king sent him his pardon, his blessing, and a ring of gold, as a token to assure him of both. The dying penitent, to shew the sincerity of his repentance, tied a halter about his neck, arrayed himself in sackcloth, and commanded his attendants to stretch him upon a layer of ashes, and in this manner he expired. The aged king swooned away three times upon hearing of the death of his son, and was for some time inconsolable.

New wars and misunderstandings now arose between France and England. Adelaide, sister to Philip king of France, had been for some time residing at the court of England, under the idea that she was to be united to Richard, now the eldest surviving son of Henry II. But for some reasons, the king of England repeatedly postponed the marriage, so as to excite the suspicion that he himself entertained a passion for the young princess. King Philip now demanded at the sword's point, the settlement of his sister's marriage, and a conference was appointed. The monarchs met in a plain-

near Gisors, the frontier of their respective dominions, destitute of shade, except that of a single venerable elm-tree, which grew on the Norman side of the boundary. The sun was burning hot; but instead of admitting his liege sovereign the king of France, to a share of the shadow of the elm-tree, Henry with less than his usual courtesy, protected himself and his party from the heat under the boughs, from which they excluded Philip and his followers. The French incensed at this assumption of superiority, and further provoked by the raillery of Henry's attendants, suddenly charged the English sword in hand. Henry escaped with difficulty to the castle of Gisors, several of his attendants were slain in his defence, and Philip caused the elm to be cut down in token of his victory. Philip also gained some superiority, the rather, that Richard the son of Henry, desirous of being wedded to the princess Adelaide, took part with the king of France against his father.

The king of England's health was injured by defeats and disgraces; his feelings were racked by his children's ingratitude; and his body at the same time attacked by a fever. On his death-bed, he declared that Geoffrey, his natural son, was the only one of his family, who had acted towards him with filial respect and obedience. The death of this great and intelligent prince removed from the increasing

power of Philip one of the greatest obstacles to the success of his reign.

The king of France now formed a close alliance with Richard (*Cœur de Lion*), who succeeded his father Henry, and being full of youthful love of adventure, made himself a voluntary party to the fatal expedition for the restoration of the fallen kingdom of Jerusalem, in which his father had engaged so unwillingly, and had so frequently postponed. Philip readily adopted him as brother and companion of his enterprise. The characters of these princes had a near resemblance to each other; both were brave in war, ambitious, and highly desirous of honour. But the character of Richard united the most desperate courage with the greatest rashness and obstinacy, which reduced his feats of valour to extravagant and useless exploits. Philip, on the contrary, combined caution and policy with valour, and was by far a more able monarch than his rival.

The armies of the confederate princes rendezvoused at Lyons, where Philip took the road to Italy by crossing the Alps, in order to embark at Genoa, while Richard with his host took shipping at Marseilles. At the time when the two most powerful nations of Christendom took arms for the rescue of Palestine: the multitude of adventurers from Europe, enabled Guy de Lusignan, the christian king

of Jerusalem (whom Saladin had made prisoner, but had not thought worth detaining in captivity) to form the siege of Ptolemais or Acre, a strong place possessing an excellent harbour, the occupation of which might greatly facilitate the arrival of succours from Europe, which were promised on all sides. The siege of Acre had lasted till the spring of the second year. Saladin had pitched his camp, and lay with his numerous troops near the town, and daily skirmishes took place between the contending armies.

The king of France appeared first on this eventful scene, but proved unequal to decide the fate of Acre, though he tried to do so by a fierce and general assault. It is said that he led his troops to the attack in person, and broke down a postern-door, with his strong hand and battle-axe. Leopold, duke of Austria, also distinguished himself by his personal intrepidity, for which, as armorial bearings were then coming into use, the emperor is said to have assigned him a banner expressive of his bravery.

Saladin, who saw the fall of Acre, gave the citizens permission to make the best terms they could; and on his part engaged to set all Christian captives at liberty, and to restore to the Crusaders the cross on which our Saviour suffered, or at least a relic which bore that repu-

tation, and which had been taken by him at the battle of Tiberias. But Saladin either could not, or would not, comply with these conditions. The impetuous Richard would hear of no delay, and put to death at once all his Mahometan prisoners, to the number of seven thousand. On account of this rashness and cruelty, he sustained the just blame of having occasioned the death of an equal number of Christians, prisoners to the sultan, whom Saladin slaughtered by way of reprisal.

While the furious Richard was thus incurring public censure, he had the mortification to see Philip acquire praise for his superior wisdom and moderation; for, by protecting his Mahometan prisoners alive, he was able to exchange them for as many captive Christians. The difference in the character of the two kings, began to be remarked by the soldiers, and though the common men preferred the rude, savage, and fearless character of the english monarch, the wise and experienced leaders saw higher personal qualities in his companion and rival. Richard had given another cause of discontent at the siege of Acre. When the city surrendered, Leopold, duke of Austria, displayed his new banner on the principal tower: the fierce temper of the king of England caught fire at the Austrian's arrogance, and he commanded the banner to be pulled down and thrown

into the ditch. The duke felt the indignity offered to him, but forbore at that time to manifest any resentment. The king of France soon found that this enterprise was of a ruinous and desperate nature, and the arrogant and capricious character of the English king required also to be soothed and kept in temper with more attention and deference than a monarch like Philip could pay to a prince who was bound to render him homage for a large part of his dominions. Nor did it escape Philip's discernment, that if he employed at home, the troops and money he was likely to expend in the fruitless prosecution of the Crusade, he might avail himself of the opportunity to annex to the crown of France the fiefs of some of those great vassals who were daily falling in the wars at Palestine.

For these reasons he determined on returning to his own country. It was necessary to satisfy, or at least to stop, the complaints of Richard, who alleged as a leading motive of Philip's return, his purpose of making war upon the english monarch in Normandy and in his other french dominions. To avoid this scandalous suspicion, the king of France, before his departure for Europe, pledged himself to king Richard not to attack any of his dominions, nor dispossess any of his vassals, while he was absent in the Crusade. Yet when Philip passed

through Rome on his return home, he made as much interest as he could with the reigning Pope (Celestine III) that he might be absolved from the oath. Philip, whose first wife had died during his absence in the Holy Land, had no sooner returned to his own kingdom, than he resolved to marry, for a second, Ingerberge, sister of Canute, king of Denmark. With this princess, it was his object to obtain a transfer of all the claims of her family (descended of the famous Canute, king of England); and obtain thereby a pretext for invading England. The plans of Philip however did not succeed. He then sought a new and discreditable channel through which to strike at his enemy. He formed a close alliance with John, brother of Richard, and youngest son of Henry II. In the mean time, while his European dominions were thus exposed to an ungrateful brother, and a faithless ally, Richard was rivalling in the Holy Land the imaginary actions of the champions of romance. He conquered Cæsarea and Jaffa; he drove Saladin before him for eleven days of continued battle. He defied armies with a handful of men, and challenged to combat, in his own person, an extended line of thousands, not one of whom dared quit their ranks to encounter him. In the midst of these wonders, Richard was recalled by the news of the intrigues of John and



Philip. He embarked with precipitation, having patched up a hasty peace with Saladin, and leaving a name in the East, with which long after, the Saracens were wont to upbraid a starting horse, demanding if he thought the bush was king Richard that he sprang aside from it! The king of England was shipwrecked on the coast of Dalmatia, and was betrayed into the hands of that very duke of Austria, whom he had offended by displacing his standard at Acre. Leopold meanly seized the opportunity of vengeance, and threw the unhappy prince into prison.

His place of confinement was for some time kept concealed, and the manner of its discovery is worthy of mention. Richard was an admirer of music, and often practised it himself. Blondel de Nesle, a favourite minstrel who had attended his person, devoted himself to discover the place of his confinement. He wandered in vain from castle to palace, till he learned that an almost inaccessible fortress, upon the Danube, was watched with peculiar strictness. The minstrel took his harp, and approaching as near the castle as he durst, he heard the captive soothing his imprisonment with music. Blondel touched his harp; the prisoner heard and was silent: upon this the minstrel played the first part of an air known to the captive, who instantly played the second part, and thus

the faithful servant obtained the certainty that the inmate of the castle was no other than his royal master. It is said that Blondel carried the news of Richard's imprisonment to the emperor, who compelled the duke of Austria to surrender his person; and in fact he seems only to have considered how much money he could extort by having in his power one of the richest as well as most powerful sovereigns of Christendom. Meantime the selfish king of France formed a fresh contract with prince John, by which the unnatural brother was to do all in his power to assert a claim to the crown of England, while Richard's french territories in Normandy and elsewhere, were to fall to Philip's share; and that no form might be wanting, the french king denounced war against Richard, then a close prisoner. He then upon various pretexts attacked the frontiers of Normandy, and made conquests there, bestowing towns on his ally John, or retaining them to himself at his pleasure; saying that he did not attack Richard in breach of his oath, but in consequence of old causes of quarrel about his sister's portion.

While Philip was thus employed, he received intelligence that the large ransom which the Emperor had set on the freedom of Richard, had been defrayed by his subjects. He communicated the alarming news to his associate,

John, in the expressive phrase, "*Have a care of yourself—the devil is loose!*" Philip knew that nothing would secure him from Richard's resentment, and therefore did not attempt to disguise his enmity. He openly invaded Normandy and besieged Verneuil; but fortune began to change on the part of his unnatural ally. Richard's unexpected arrival in England had entirely destroyed the treacherous schemes of John. That wicked prince now saw no means of security, except by abandoning king Philip, and throwing himself entirely upon his brother's clemency. The action by which he proposed to make these intentions manifest was most atrocious. He invited to the castle of Evreux, in which Philip had invested him, those Norman chiefs and officers most favorable to the french king. Having received them hospitably, and feasted them royally, he surprised, seized upon, and murdered his guests, when unsuspecting of danger, and incapable of resistance.

He cut off the heads of three hundred, and arranged them upon pikes around the castle; but the king avenged this double treason as it deserved. He made a hasty march to Evreux, surprised John's english garrison and put them to the sword; laying in ashes the town itself, as the scene of such treachery. Richard advanced in his turn, and obtained some advan-

tages in which he took the whole treasure of the french king; but he was too much weakened by the rebellion of his vassals, to follow the war with his natural ardour.

Truces therefore followed each other, until at length both princes began to entertain thoughts of a solid and lasting peace. But ere it was concluded, a paltry enterprise cost Richard Cœur de Lion that life which he had risked in so many affairs of importance. One of his vassals had found a treasure in the earth upon his fief. Richard demanded possession of it, as lord paramount. It was refused, and the king besieged the vassal's castle. He soon reduced it to extremity; but an archer taking aim from the walls with a cross-bow, mortally wounded Cœur de Lion. The castle was surrendered ere the king had died of his wound. Richard commanded the archer to be brought before him, and demanded why he had sought his life? "You slew," replied the archer, whose name was Bertram de Gurdun, "my father and my brother, and you were seeking my own life; was I not right to prevent you if I could, by taking yours?" The dying king acknowledged that he had reason for his conduct, and forgiving his offence, commanded him to be dismissed unharmed. But Richard's injunctions were not respected; the captain of a band of his mercenaries put de Gurdun to death, by slaying him

alive, as the most cruel mode of revenging their monarch.

Cœur de Lion was succeeded by the tyrant John. He was a bad father, a bad brother, a bad monarch, and a bad man; yet he was preferred notwithstanding the existence of Arthur, duke of Bretagne, who was son to the deceased Geoffrey, the immediate younger brother of Richard, and the senior to John. But though John became king of England, and duke of Normandy, great discontent prevailed in his french dominions, where the nobles and knights preferred the young prince Arthur.

Philip of France now saw the moment was arrived when he might safely resume his labours to reunite, under the immediate sovereignty of the french crown, the great fiefs of Normandy, and the other provinces of which the late Henry the second of England, had obtained possession by his marriage with Eleanor, the repudiated wife of Louis le Jeune. But though the character and conduct of John was so unpopular, and this was a crisis so favourable and so important for extending the authority of France, Philip was, by some domestic embarrassments, prevented for a time from profiting by it. He had lost his first wife in childbed of twins, and took for his second the princess Ingerberge of Denmark, for the purpose of obtaining, as part of her fortune, the cession

of the claims of the descendants of Canute to the throne of England, which might give him a pretence to disturb the heir of William the Conqueror now in possession of that kingdom. But being disappointed in this intended purpose, or displeased with his new bride, Philip sent the Danish princess to a convent, before she had resided two days in his palace. He employed some of the subservient prelates about his court, to discover cause for a divorce, which was easily found in the pretext of too close alliance in blood between the wedded parties, and a divorce took place within three years after their separation.

The king then proposed marriage to Agnes de Merania, daughter to the duke of Dalmatia; but the king of Denmark remonstrated at Rome, and the legate of the Pope declared formally that the marriage with Ingerberge remained binding. Philip followed his own will and married Agnes; the Pope laid his kingdom under an interdict, which prohibited the performance of divine service, for marriage, burial or baptism, occasioning thereby an inexpressible confusion in the country. The king revenged himself on the clergy; he seized on their temporal effects and imprisoned the canons of the cathedrals. At length finding it difficult to remain in this state, he made a compromise with the Pope, and resolved to take back the Danish

princess, as if of his own accord. He did so and accordingly went to the convent where she resided, and taking her up behind him on the same steed, proceeded with her in that manner to Paris, where he publicly acknowledged her for his lawful wife.

Ingerberge, with the same patient obedience which distinguished her while in the cloister, returned to the world, and lived and died blameless, if not beloved. The fate of Agnes de Merania was less fortunate; she died of a broken heart. John of England was likewise involved in difficulties by giving way to his pleasures. During a journey in Guienne he had become captivated with the charms of Isabel, the beautiful daughter of the Earl of Angouleme, who was affianced to Hugh le Brun, Earl de la Marche, and had been delivered up to her betrothed husband. But John, in order to obtain her, banished a wife to whom he had been united ten years; and by tempting the ambition of Aymar, count of Angouleme, easily bribed him to accept a king for his son-in-law instead of a simple count (A. D. 1200). The Earl de la Marche, thus deprived of his betrothed, rose with his brother the Earl of Eu and other confederates in Guienne, into open rebellion.

John, alarmed for the consequences, well knowing his own unpopularity, summoned to-

gether his english vassals, in order to put an end to the insurrection ere it spread wider; but the great english barons, disliking either the cause, or the prince, or both, obeyed his summons, but slowly. Arthur, the nephew of John, began now to complain that of his uncle Richard's succession, he had been suffered to retain only the Dukedom of Bretagne; which was the more unjust, as Richard, when he went to the Holy Land, had designed Geoffrey his father as heir of all french dominions. And Philip claiming, as liege lord, the right of deciding between John and his dissatisfied vassals, declared himself the protector of the insurgents of Guienne, and the assertor of the claims of Arthur.

Both nations took arms, and on each side an ambitious and violent tempered woman urged the quarrel to extremity. Constance, the mother of Arthur, and widow of his deceased father Geoffrey, incited her son to war against his uncle John by every argument in her power; and on the other hand the dowager queen Eleanor, that celebrated heiress, who transferred Aquitaine from Louis le Jeune to Henry II., was still alive, and violent in behalf of king John, whom she loved better than her other sons, because he resembled her more in disposition than any of his brothers.

In 1202 hostilities commenced. Young Ar-



thor took the field in the west of France with two hundred knights, and gained some success. But having, on his march through Poitou, received information that the dowager queen Eleanor, his own and his mother's personal enemy, was residing in the adjacent castle of Mirabel, he flew to invest it, and to make sure of her as a prisoner. The defence was vigorous, but at length the besiegers possessed themselves of the base-court, and were well nigh carrying the great tower of the castle. The arrival of king John with an army more numerous than that of his nephew, changed the scene.

Arthur, with his little band, was completely routed, and all were either slain or made prisoners. Arthur himself, the comte de la Marche, and two hundred knights were among the latter; their fate is the most atrocious of John's cruelties. The minds of all men revolted against the author of this disgraceful abuse of victory; the barons of Bretagne accused John before Philip of the crime of murdering *their duke*, and *his own nephew*, in the person of Arthur. As the king of England did not appear to answer to their charge, he was pronounced guilty, and all his dominions in Normandy declared forfeited to his liege lord the king of France. Thus was the crisis arrived, which Philip had long wished for: accordingly at the head of his army he began to enforce the doom of forfei-

ture, or, in plain language, to conquer Normandy. John never attempted to meet his enemies in the field, but remained at Rouen, till finding the storm of war approach he fled to England, leaving the dukedom of Normandy to its fate, which with most of the other english possessions in France, once more became the property of the french kings.

The extreme indolence and imbecility of John, encouraged Philip of France to extend his views even beyond the limits of the french dominions of the english prince; and he resolved to attempt a second conquest of England, while its crown was on so unworthy a head. The success of William the Conqueror, under circumstances much less favourable, was doubtless an encouraging example. But some appearance of justice was wanting for such an invasion, and Philip was not long in finding it. John with his usual rashness laid himself open to this, by a quarrel with the Pope, at any time a formidable adversary, but an irresistible one to a sovereign so universally detested. This dispute took place in 1202, concerning the election of an archbishop of Canterbury; and John continuing refractory, his Holiness laid England under an interdict, and soon after pronounced excommunication against its king, released his subjects from allegiance, and delivered up his kingdom to any one who should

— carry the doom of the pontiff into execution. Philip of France had the express charge of executing the sentence of deposition against his neighbour of England, and as a reward for his exertions, he was declared king of that country in his stead. He assembled a large army near Boulogne, where he had provided seventeen hundred vessels to transport them to England. But notwithstanding the tyranny of John, the English in general resolved to resist the invasion. The alarm that the kingdom was in danger from *foreigners* drew together an immense army, and John selected sixty thousand well appointed troops, to oppose the French king; he also by a secret treaty with Pandulph, the legate of the Pope, endeavoured to avert the danger. In this he succeeded, but it was by an act of submission the most ignominious of which the world had yet seen an example. He resigned into the hands of the legate, as representing his Holiness, his kingdoms of England and Ireland, engaging to hold them as vassal to the Pope, for the tribute of one thousand marks yearly. His Holiness then commanded Philip to forbear any enterprise against John of England. Philip remonstrated, but thought it best to comply, as he learned the existence of a confederacy against him, among the crown vassals of France.

For this reason he turned the army designed

for the invasion of England, against Ferrand, earl of Flanders, whose accession to such a league he had reason to apprehend. The great army of France, with the king at its head, advanced into Flanders, taking some of the Earl's towns, and menacing the subjugation of his earldom. King John, at the entreaty of earl Ferrand, sent to his assistance a great fleet, under the command of a natural son of Richard Cœur de Lion, called LONGSWORN, Earl of Salisbury. The English had already acquired that superiority at sea, which has been long one of their national characteristics. They defeated the French navy, though more numerous than their own; destroying one hundred vessels, taking one hundred, and dispersing the rest of the fleet. This caused Philip to retire into his own dominions.

The confederacy of the crown vassals assumed an alarming appearance; the emperor Otho lent his active co-operation, and the earls of Flanders, Boulogne, Toulouse, and Auvergne, also joined the enemies of Philip, and visited England in 1214, to arrange the plan of the ensuing campaign. It was agreed that France should be invaded on two sides, but that the main attempt should be made by the emperor Otho, and the warlike earls of Boulogne and Flanders, aided by a body of english troops, under the command of the celebrated Long-

sword of Salisbury. John himself was to cross the sea to La Rochelle, where he was to be joined by several english friends, as well as by the earls of Auvergne and Toulouse.

The allies accordingly advanced at the head of a numerous army, amounting, it is said, to one hundred and fifty thousand men. They assembled at Peronne in Flanders, and moved south-westwards into France. The army of Philip was not so numerous, but it was composed of the flower of the french chivalry, the great princes of the blood royal, and such of the vassals of the crown as were not in the confederacy. The monarch had also the advantage of the bravery of a valiant knight hospitaller, called Guerin.

Philip directed his course towards Hainalt; but in their march, the French discovered the numerous squadrons of the emperor on the opposite bank of the Meuse, near Bouvines. There was a wooden bridge across the river. The french nobles on the one side, and the germans on the other, rushed emulously to seize the passage; but it was occupied by the former, and the french infantry passed under the oriflamme or banner of St. Denis, and formed on the western side of the river. The king had stretched himself to repose under an ash-tree, when he was roused by the horsemen who came to apprise him that the battle had com-

menced. Philip arose, advanced to the front of his troops, and placing his crown on a portable altar: "My friends," said he to his troops, it is for the crown of France you fight, and not for him, who has of late worn it. If you can rescue it from these men, who are combined to degrade and destroy it, the soldier who shall bear him best in his defence is, for my part, welcome to wear it as his own." He was answered with shouts of "long live king Philip! the crown can befit no brow so well as his own."

The army of the allies extended their wings, for the purpose of surrounding Philip's inferior numbers. But by this manœuvre they lost the opportunity of charging the French troops, when only a part of their army had passed over, and in taking up their new ground, they exposed their faces to the sun, a great disadvantage which they felt severely during the whole action. The battle began with incredible fury, and was one of the most obstinate as well as most important of those warlike times.

At the onset the allies had some advantage, for a body of French light horse, which commenced the attack, were unable to withstand the weight and strength of the huge men and horses of the flemish and german cavalry, to whom they were opposed. Philip was un-

horsed, and his wars and life would have ended on the spot, but for the devoted loyalty of some knights, who threw themselves betwixt him and the Germans, almost at the same moment, that the earl of Flanders, who had been at first victorious, was made prisoner, and his Flemish forces defeated, giving an opportunity for a large body of French cavalry to press closely to the centre where their assistance was so much required. The band who came to Philip's rescue, determined to attack the person of the emperor. They broke through his guard, took his banner and rushed on him. PETER DE MAUVOISIN seized his bridle, WILLIAM DES BARRES grasped him round the body, and strove to pull him from his horse; GERARD DE TAIE attempted to strike him through with his sword, but only killed his horse. A furious charge of some Germans relieved their emperor, remounted him on a swift horse, and he left the conflict. "Let him go," said Philip, who witnessed his enemy's flight, "you will see no more of him to day than his back!" Victory soon after declared for the French.

Such was the celebrated battle of Bouvines, on the details of which the French historians dwell with national pride; it lasted from noon till five in the evening. The earl of Boulogne, five earls of the highest rank and

power, twenty five nobles bearing banners, and nearly as many men of inferior rank, as there were soldiers in the conquering army, were made prisoners. After the victory Philip caused the principal captives to be conducted through Paris in a sort of triumph, and in this procession Renaud count of Boulogne, and Ferrand count of Flanders, were distinguished from the rest by being loaded with irons. The second part of the plan of the allies, which was to have depended on the exertions of king John of England, proved as inefficient as the others. He carried over an english army to La Rochelle, and received the homage of many barons of Poitou and Normandy. He took Angers, the capital of Anjou, but did nothing further which could materially favour the confederates. Philip having gained the battle of Bouvines, marched into Poitou against John, but on receiving a present of sixty thousand pounds sterling, he granted the king of England a truce for the space of five years. During this time a remarkable series of events took place in France. The Popes, determined upon increasing their finances, and extending their power, had found great advantage in preaching the crusade as the indispensable duty of all Christians; and at the same time, they found it very convenient to accept large sums of money from those princes, nobles, and individuals, who preferred remain-



ing at home, to look after their own affairs.

These holy expeditions were originally confined to the recovery of Palestine. But the Popes thought it might be advantageous to extend the principles of the holy crusade to the extirpation of heresy at home. Accordingly the pontiffs assumed the privilege of commanding all Christian people, to rise up in arms and do execution on such people or sects as they had been pleased to lay under the ban of excommunication for heretical opinions; and employed them wherever they chose. Thus the southwest of France became the scene of horrible war. A numerous party of dissenters from the faith of Rome, had gradually extended itself through the south of France. Raymond count of Toulouse within whose dominions these dissenters found refuge, was a prince of comprehensive understanding, and willing to grant liberty of conscience to all who lived under his sway. Against these unfortunate Albigenses, as they were called, and their protector Raymond, Pope Innocent III. proclaimed a crusade, enjoining those persons who should embrace so pious a labour, to convert them by the Gospel or by the sword. A numerous host was assembled under the name of the army of the Church. They were commanded by Simon de Montfort, a brave, but cruel leader, and a bigot. Under his command, these crusaders indulged in all

the licences of war against the peaceful Albigenses, pretending that they were extirpating evil, and thereby rendering acceptable service to God and to the christian Church. Philip of France did not himself embrace the crusade against the Albigenses, but his son prince Louis joined it, against his father's will. Count Raymond defended himself until after the battle of Bouvines, by which time Simon de Montfort had obtained such a superiority over the Albigenses, that he rather regarded the engagement of Louis in the crusade as a matter of jealousy than as affording support and assistance.

Prince Louis was soon after summoned by his father to a more honourable warfare, which had for its object the conquest of England and the destruction of John's power.

John's tyranny increased as his power grew weaker, and he enraged his subjects by attempting to maintain it in the most obnoxious manner. The barons and the people were equally discontented by his violent and oppressive exactions and claims, and took the field against him in such force, as obliged him to submit to their just demands, and he signed, at Runnamede, the celebrated grant of privileges called *Magna Charta*, which the English still consider the bulwark of their liberties. But no sooner did he imagine himself capable of resistance than he requested the Pope to annul the Great Charter,

as extorted by force, and to excommunicate the barons and all who favoured them.

John also received powerful assistance from a large army of mercenary soldiers, whom he landed at Dover, and with whom he took Rochester. The barons then threw themselves into the arms of the king of France, rather than submit to the tyrant John. Two of their number were dispatched to the court of the king Philip, offering to transfer their own allegiance, and the kingdom of England, to his eldest son Louis, on condition of his bringing an army to their assistance.

The tempting offer prevailed on Philip and his son, the former in secret, and the latter openly, to accept the proposal of the barons, and to send an army of seven thousand men to reinforce the insurgent party in England; while Louis himself prepared a stronger expedition.

On the 23<sup>rd</sup> of May (A. D. 1216) Louis arrived before Sandwich with a fleet of six hundred sail; he disembarked a great number of land forces, marched towards London and took Rochester in his way. The legate of the Pope strove in vain to defend John by the fulminations of the Church. These were addressed both against Philip and his son Louis; but as the former disavowed in public the proceedings of his son, the excommunication fell only on

Louis, who received from his father, secretly, the encouragement and supplies which were openly refused to him. The curse of Rome did not greatly affect prince Louis, while the barons of England continued to espouse his cause; he marched successfully through England, and reduced the whole southern part of that kingdom. But he met a check before the castle of Dover, which was defended with obstinacy and success by Hubert de Burgh and a select garrison.

Although success seemed almost impossible, Louis continued the siege, and the time which he wasted before Dover, gave John leisure once more to collect his forces, and afforded opportunity for sowing dissensions among the allies of prince Louis. Windsor castle was besieged with no more success than Dover.

John was once more at the head of a formidable army, and the English barons began to quit Louis, on finding that he treated the French with undue partiality, and afforded little countenance to the lords of England who had joined him. A report was also spread, that the viscount de Melun had on his death-bed confessed, that Louis meant to put to death, as traitors to their natural monarch, the barons who had joined his party. In consequence of this several nobles deserted Louis, and returned to their allegiance. The country was relieved from


this state of anarchy, by the sudden death of John at Newark-upon-Trent, at the age only of forty-nine years, on the 19<sup>th</sup> october 1216. Henry III., eldest son and successor of John, was only in his tenth year, so that the assistance of a guardian or protector was absolutely necessary.

The earl of Pembroke, a wise and brave nobelman, was chosen to this eminent and difficult office. His first act was to renew *the Great Charter* of the liberties, and in consequence the barons began to throng back to the english standard, and to desert that of France. Louis, who had received considerable reinforcements from his father, was reluctant to abandon his enterprise, and for some time persevered in his attempts on Dover castle, but without any success. Other indecisive sieges and skirmishes took place until at length, in the beginning of the summer of 1217, the french army, under the earl of Perche, was totally defeated at Lincoln. This closed the struggle, and a treaty of peace was concluded betwixt Louis and the lord protector Pembroke.

Louis resigned his pretensions to the crown of England, and engaged to make intercession with his father for the restoration of Normandy, and other places, conquered by Philip from king John; and if his intercession should prove ineffectual, the prince bound himself to restore

these dominions, when he himself should succeed to the throne of France. He then withdrew with all his forces, leaving the young prince Henry, peacefully seated upon the throne; and found in his own country another strife. This was the renewed war against the unfortunate Albigenses in the south of France, who had rushed to arms, restored count Raymond to the government of his fief, and became again formidable. Simon de Montfort hastened to attack them, while an assembly of the Church, held at Mantes, again determined on preaching the crusade. The tyrannical Simon fell before the city of Toulouse; and his wife and family were made prisoners by the Albigenses. Philip, who dared not refuse the Pope and clergy, reluctantly permitted his son Louis, with an army of fifteen thousand men, to take the cross against the heretics in the south of France. But the prince carried on the war with much coldness and was at length recalled by his father, who died soon after of a fever at Mantes, in July 1223.

He was the greatest prince that had worn the french crown since the days of Charlemagne. He left the dominions of France nearly doubled in extent by his valour and prudence, and greatly improved in wealth, strength and convenience, by the formation of roads, the fortification of defenceless towns, by public works and other national improvements.



## TALE XV.

LOUIS VIII. (1223).

PHILIP AUGUSTUS was succeeded by his eldest son Louis VIII., called, from his personal courage, THE LION. He had scarcely assumed the throne, when an ambassador from Henry III. demanded the restoration of the provinces, according to the terms of the treaty made and sworn to, when he left England in 1217. Louis however was determined not to comply; alleging that the English themselves had not fulfilled the treaty of 1217. Instead therefore of restoring Normandy, he invaded and besieged those towns which the English still possessed in Poitou; and Niort, St. Jean d'Angely, and finally La Rochelle itself, fell into his hands. Bordeaux, and the country beyond the Garonne, was the only part of their ample dominions within France which still remained subject to the English.

The Gascons were favourable to the English cause; they were also flattered by the proposal to place them immediately under the command of a prince of the english blood royal; and they prepared so formidably to resist the invasion of Louis, that he thought prudent to consent to a truce for three years (A. D. 1224).

He was now urged by the Pope's legate to renew the crusade against the southern herefics, but in consenting to do so, failed not to insure to himself the principal advantage of it. Having thus provided for his own interest, the king assembled an army of fifty thousand men; and with this force he besieged Avignon, where the citizens fought with the utmost obstinacy, and the besiegers lost above two thousand men, amongst whom was that celebrated comte de St. Paul who had acquired so much honour at the battle of Bouvines. At length they were compelled to a capitulation, the terms of which were uncommonly severe. The roman catholic religion was to be practised exclusively, and two hundred hostages, sons of the most wealthy inhabitants, were demanded; some of those who had conducted the defence were hanged, the fortifications were dismantled, and three hundred of the best houses were levelled with the ground, to complete the humiliation of the city.

After Avignon had surrendered, Louis proposed to march against Toulouse, to inflict a similar vengeance on that town; his army had however suffered so much, that he was compelled to grant them some relaxation. But Louis had already performed his last campaign; he was attacked at Montpensier, by a fever of which he died the 12<sup>th</sup> november (A. D. 1226),



having reigned only four years, and being in the very prime of his manhood. He was succeeded by his eldest son, also a LOUIS, who was afterwards distinguished by the title of SAINT.

The queen Blanche, relict of the deceased monarch, acted as regent for her son. She was eldest daughter of Alphonso, king of Castille, by his wife Eleanor, daughter of that celebrated Eleanor of Aquitaine by her second marriage with Henry II. of England.

Louis VIII., who had great confidence in her wisdom, had named her regent of France until his son should attain the years of majority.

## TALE XVI.

### LOUIS IX., CALLED SAINT LOUIS (1226).

THE occurrence of a minority seemed, to the ambitious petty princes, a time highly fitted for recovering, by force if necessary, the independence of which they had been deprived. The nobles who engaged in a conspiracy against the queen regent were Raymond of Toulouse; Philip of Boulogne, brother of the late king, who claimed the regency; the powerful counts Thibault of Champagne; Hugh de la Marche; Hugh de St. Paul; Simon de Ponthieu, and Peter duke of Bretagne.

Their object was to deprive the king of all power beyond that of a president of the *Cour plénière* and general of the armies of the kingdom. Blanche, ere the confederates had matured their plan, suddenly attacked Raymond of Toulouse : reduced him to ask terms ; to bind himself to renounce the heretical opinions of the Albigenses, and to give his daughter and heiress in marriage to Alphonso her fourth son ; thus securing these rich territories to the royal family. The next part of her undertaking was the subjugation of the confederates, and, by a little well timed flattery, she soon separated Thibault count of Champagne from his associates, and secured his interest to herself. He gave her private intimation of a project of the malcontents to seize her person during her journey from Orleans to Paris ; and indeed was so faithful to her interest as to communicate most of their plans, which were thus easily counteracted. But the count was near paying dearly his attachment to the queen regent. He was attacked by the whole confederacy who determined to expel him from his country, and confer Champagne on the queen of Cyprus, who had some claim to it as heiress of Thibault's elder brother.

Blanche was so far grateful, that she caused her son to march to his succour and repel the attack upon his territories. Yet she sought to

gain something for the crown, by this; and therefore intimated to the count, that to defray the expenses of the war, and compensate the claims of his niece, it would be expedient that he should sell to the young king his territories of <sup>VII</sup>BLOIS, CHARTRES, CHATEAUDUN and SANCERRE.

The count made some remonstrances, but she reproached him with disobedience and ingratitude, and the crown of France acquired the territory. Some of the French courtiers grew impatient of the absurd pretensions of Thibault to the queen's favour. They instigated Robert of Artois, one of the sons of Louis VIII., to affront the count of Champagne by throwing a soft cream cheese in his face. Thibault could not support the ridicule that this caused; he retired from court and endeavoured to find consolation in the favour of the muses. He afterwards became king of Navarre, and obtained the reputation of a wise and accomplished sovereign. Blanche by her firm government not only maintained the authority of the throne, but augmented it considerably during her regency.

She was in no hurry to surrender to her son the supreme power, which she had administrated so well; nor did the dutiful Louis, though now approaching his twenty-first year, seem impatient to take it upon himself. Blanche's jealousy of those of her own sex who approached her son and sought to please him, was not perhaps an

extraordinary, though an inconvenient excess of maternal fondness. But she was certainly unreasonable in extending her jealousy to her son's wife, a beautiful woman, named Margaret, one of the daughters of Raymond Berenger, count of Provence.

The servants of the household had orders, when the king and queen were in private together, to whip the dogs, which were about the royal apartments, so that the cries of the animals might give the queen-mother a hint to intrude on the retirement of her son and his wife. The young queen reproached her mother-in-law with this jealous vigilance; and when Blanche caused Louis to be removed from the apartment in which his wife was about to be confined, she said: "You will not let me speak with my husband whether living or dying."

Louis being attacked with illness, was so alarmed that he was easily induced to follow the prevailing error of the time, and assume the cross; he received it from the hands of the archbishop of Paris, and made a solemn vow to march in person against the enemies of Christianity, with a royal army, if he recovered.

It was in vain that the wisest of his ministers, and even his mother, pointed out to him the disasters his predecessors had sustained by such imprudent engagements; he insisted on the necessity of fulfilling his vow, and would only

valour, instead of halting till he was supported, rushed on with two thousand horse, and forced his way into the village of Massoura, where the Saracens gave themselves up for lost. But their troops being rallied by a valiant soldier, the advanced party of the count of Artois were enclosed within the village. The inhabitants then poured on them stones, javelins, arrows, scalding water, and all sorts of missiles from the roofs of the houses.

Most of the Christians were slain, and the count of Artois, after having for some time defended himself in one of the houses, at length fell fighting valiantly. The king wept bitterly the loss of his brother, and the French determined to avenge him: they fought bravely and slew numbers of the enemy. The losses of the Saracens were easily replaced; but every soldier that fell on the part of the French, was an irreparable loss. The invaders were thus soon reduced to a defensive warfare; and this was sustained at the greatest disadvantage.

Fatal diseases broke out in the army, and the condition of the christians became so desperate that Louis resolved to retreat to Damietta, and call in all the outposts and van-guard of his army, which were on their march to Cairo. In the latter part of his retreat, the Turks came so close upon him, that sir Geoffrey de Sergines had the greatest difficulty to drive them off. In

the mean time most of those who had fled, rather than retreated, to Damietta, had already been slaughtered by the Saracens, or had delivered themselves up to captivity. The king, with his remaining brother, many princes of the blood, nobles, and the wreck of this army, fell captives into the hands of the enemy, and were treated with the utmost severity.

Upon the surrender of the prisoners, their only choice was that of embracing the Moslem faith, or instant death. When however it was discovered that most of them could pay a high ransom; the Turks became more desirous of lucre than of blood; and exchanged for ransom those who were able to comply with their demands. The king of France told the sultan, that if a reasonable price was set upon his liberty and on that of the remainder of his army, he would write to the queen, who was still at Damietta, to pay it. The Saracens (who admit no women to their councils) asked why the queen should be consulted. "Have I not reason?" answered Louis; "is she not my wife, and my companion?" His ransom was fixed by the sultan at a million of golden *bezants* — equal to five hundred thousand livres. "I will cheerfully pay that," said Louis, "for the ransom of my army; and for my own I will surrender the town of Damietta to the sultan, for my rank is too high to be valued in money." The

sultan was pleased, and with a generous emulation exclaimed, "He is a right generous Frank; tell him I abate one fifth, and that four hundred thousand livres shall be sufficient." He also sent garments for the king's use. But while the sultan Touran-Shah was thus disposing of the fate of another, he little knew how near he approached to his own. The discontent of his body-guard or Mamelukes had risen to the highest. They broke out into insurrection, set fire to his pavilion and cut the unfortunate prince to pieces. Having committed this murder, they came before the king and the French captives, with their bloody battle-axes and sabres in their hands. "What will you give me," said the foremost assassin, who was yet streaming with the blood of Touran-Shah, "who have slain your greatest enemy?" Louis returned no answer, but all the French expected to be immediately massacred: however they offered new conditions somewhat similar to those of the murdered sultan, but stipulating also that the king should take an oath to renounce his baptism and his faith.

Louis answered, that he would rather die a good christian than purchase his life by a sinful oath. In the meantime the scene suddenly changed; a mirthful sound of trumpets and kettle-drums was heard before the tent, and king Louis was invited by the chiefs of the

late conspiracy to become their sultan. This proposal was not however seriously insisted on; on the contrary some of the leading emirs were of opinion that to atone for the slaughter of Touran-Shah, a good mahometan, it was their duty to put to death SAINT LOUIS and his followers, the mortal enemies of their prophet Mahomet, and of his religion.

At length a treaty for ransom was carried into execution. The queen of France, who, as I before informed you, had accompanied her husband in this calamitous expedition, was enclosed with the remnant of the Crusaders that held out at Damietta. She was at that time with child, and near the period of her confinement. Three days before she was delivered, she was informed that the good king her husband had been made prisoner, which so troubled her mind, that she made an officer watch at the foot of her bed all night without sleeping. This person was at least eighty years old. When the queen found herself near her accouchement, she ordered every one, except this ancient knight, to leave her chamber; she then cast herself at his feet and requested that he would grant her a boon. The knight promised compliance; the queen said, "I request, on the oath you have sworn, that should the Saracens storm this town, and take it, you will cut off my head rather than I should fall into their



power." He replied that he would; which contenting her, she was shortly after delivered of a son (in the town of Damietta), who was named John, and his surname Tristran (i. e. *the Sad*), because he was born in misery and poverty.

After suffering many hardships, Louis, his queen, and his lords, were at length permitted to embark for Acre with the remnant of the army. When he arrived on ground where he might consider himself free, he again became inspired with the rash quixotry of his crusade, forgetting that he owed a still more pressing duty to his kingdom, where general confusion prevailed. His mother, queen Blanche, who acted as regent, had lost in some degree that strength of mind which distinguished her during her son's minority. The intestine disorders were likely to be increased by a war with England upon the expiration of the truce between these countries. In the mean time the regent mother became so afflicted on hearing of her son's misfortunes, that she retired into a convent and died of melancholy. On receiving these sad tidings, Louis yielded to necessity, and prepared to return to France. After a voyage of ten weeks he arrived upon the coast of Provence.

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## TALE XVII.

## DEATH OF SAINT LOUIS IN A CRUSADE AGAINST TUNIS.

KING LOUIS, upon his return to France, hastened to make peace with England, and received Henry III. at Paris, with sumptuous hospitality. "I would willingly restore the provinces," said the king to the English monarch, "but my peers and barons will not consent." King Henry therefore exchanged his claims on Normandy, Anjou, Touraine, and Poitou, for some trifling territories adjacent to Gascony. Louis now reigned in peace and honour; from the universal confidence reposed in his justice and equity, both his own subjects and strangers frequently referred to him matters which were in debate between them. He endeavoured to maintain the tranquillity of the kingdom, by the suppression of the numerous private quarrels among the great vassals of the crown; and greatly curbed the right which they assumed, of taking the field like independant sovereigns. These great lords, overawed by the reputation and power of the king, were compelled to bring their contests before his tribunal, instead of deciding them by arms. Thus St. Louis studied to make his people happy, while his own de-

meanour indicated too fully that he had at his heart the rooted feeling of having sustained defeat and disgrace in Egypt, where he had most hoped to deserve success, and to acquire glory. His desire for the general peace of Europe, and his efforts to appease the quarrels of the great incurred the censure of some of his statesmen, who wished to persuade him that he would act with more policy by suffering their discords to augment; and even by aggravating their quarrels, than by endeavouring to end them. In like manner, his advisers upbraided him that he neglected to take advantage of the weakness of Henry III., to wrest from the English the considerable share of the french territory which they still retained in Gascony.

While thus behaving with moderation and generosity to his neighbours, and even to his enemies, Louis performed in his own person the duty of a judge, and was often found, like the kings of Judah, sitting at the gates of his palace, to render justice indifferently to all those who presented themselves to ask it of him.

By his attention to the public good, as well in making laws, as in enforcing them, the king was deservedly beloved, and proved that nothing could carry an empire to such a height of peace and happiness, as the generous and worthy conduct of a prince. St. Louis however still retained the hope of being more successful

in a new crusade than in that in which he had encountered defeat and captivity; and after sixteen years, he again prepared a fleet and an army to invade the territories of a mahometan prince.

The city of Tunis, upon the coast of Africa, was the destined object of the expedition. Louis conceived that the king of Tunis was willing to turn Christian, and become his ally and vassal: he hoped to make the conversion of this prince, the means of extending christianity over Egypt and Palestine also. It was in the year 1270, that he gave this new proof of his superstition. He carried with him, as before, the princes of his own family, and many of his principal vassals. The most remarkable of these was Edward, prince of Wales, who seized that opportunity to exhibit fresh proofs of the courage and military talent which he had displayed in his own country during the civil conflicts called the barons' wars. He was followed by a body of select troops, and distinguished himself greatly. This eighth and last crusade was in its outset assailed by a tempest, and the fleet sustained great loss. In three days however Louis assembled the greater part of his armament before Tunis: but the monarch of that country received him at the head of a large army and defended his city against the invaders. Louis landed and obtained some successes; but

the Crusaders had no sooner formed a close siege around the town, than diseases broke out in their army; the want of provisions increased the contagion, and constant skirmishing with the Moors added the waste of the sword to that of epidemic disease.

The infection approached the person and family of the king; his eldest son died of fever, and his youngest son Tristan, who received birth in Damietta, during the miseries of his father's first crusade, expired amidst the ruin of his second attempt. Louis himself, attacked by the fever which had robbed him of two sons, called to his pillow Philip, his eldest remaining child, and exhausted what remained of life and strength in giving him his parting instructions, and soon closed his eyes for ever; he was succeeded by Philip III. called the Bold.

When the eighth crusade had nearly come to a melancholy termination, by the death of Louis and his two sons, Charles, king of the Sicilies, appeared before Tunis with a fleet loaded with provisions and reinforcement. The fresh troops advanced to support the siege, but the Arabs checked their approach by putting in motion the sands of the desert, which driven by a violent wind upon the strangers, prevented their approach. Upon a second occasion, however, the natives were drawn into an ambuscade, and suffered severely by the swords

of the Europeans. The sultan began now to propose terms of submission, agreeing to pay a ransom to the king of the Sicilies, of forty thousand crowns a year, to defray the expense of the war, to allow the preaching religion in his dominions, with some other concessions. Of all the princes in the crusade, Edward I. of England alone refused to consent to this treaty. He professed his determination to proceed to Palestine, where Acre, the last of the fortresses which owned the christian authority, was on the point of surrendering to the Saracens. "I will enter Acre," said young Edward, "though only Fowin my groom should follow me." He went forward accordingly with his little band of English, but with little success. His expedition is chiefly famed for the romantic courage of the princess Eleanor, who attended him and is said to have sucked the wound which her husband received from an envenomed weapon, and to have thus endangered her own life to save his. After the treaty of Tunis, the kings of France and Sicily returned to their dominions.

## TALE XVIII.

PHILIP III. CALLED THE BOLD (1270).

PHILIP was eager to take possession of the crown, which had fallen to him by inheritance :

Charles was desirous to enjoy that which he had obtained by conquest. Philip endeavoured to distinguish himself by enforcing the wise laws of king Louis, his father, for preventing private wars among his vassals; but his most remarkable adventures occurred in his own family, and were of a very distressing nature.

In his return through Italy, he had the misfortune to lose his beautiful wife, Isabel, who had followed him to the crusade. In the course of the journey, the queen was thrown from her horse, and being near her confinement, her death was the consequence. She left four sons, LOUIS, who died by poison; PHILIP, who reigned after his father; CHARLES OF VA-LOIS, father of the branch from which sprang the french kings of that house, and ROBERT who died young.

After the king's return to France, the council advised him to marry, and he took, as his second wife, Mary, the daughter of Henry, the sixth duke of Brabant. She bore a son the year after her marriage, and within six years afterwards two daughters. The king was much attached to his wife, a beautiful and affectionate woman, but jealousy and discord were at last sown between them, by a person of low origin, named Pierre de La Brosse, who had originally appeared at court in the capacity of a barber.

Upon the death of St. Louis, Philip advanced

La Brosse, who seems to have been a man of talent, to the rank of royal chamberlain, and employed him in the administration of some important affairs. He is said to have abused the king's kindness and betrayed his trust by unjust oppression. He was aware that the penetration of the young queen discovered his unworthiness, and he took every opportunity to prejudice Philip against her, by intimating from time to time that his consort was actuated by the general dislike, commonly imputed to stepmothers, against the king's children by his former marriage. About this time Louis, his eldest son by his first wife, heir to the crown of France, was suddenly seized by a malignant fever, which hurried him to his grave. — The fatal disorder was attended with violent derangement in his stomach, livid spots upon his person, and other symptoms, which were ascribed to poison.

La Brosse spread rumours tending to fix the crime of poisoning upon queen Mary; the queen on the contrary accused La Brosse of having administered poison to the young prince for the purpose of charging it against her. John of Brabant, the brother of the queen, hearing of the affair, came immediately to the court of France, and demanded that her honour should be fully cleared, and offered to combat any who should impeach it. The ruin of La Brosse



soon followed ; for being found guilty of treason, he was disgraced and afterwards ignominiously executed. The queen was declared innocent to the great joy of the nation.

The affairs of England and Italy were the next objects of importance during the reign of Philip the Bold ; Edward I. had long been busied in reducing his english subjects to obedience, and having perfectly succeeded, he now became desirous of asserting his claim to the english territories in France. To accomplish this purpose, he resided three years in France, from June 1286 to August 1289.

The bloody wars which long deluged Europe with slaughter, in order to decide the possession of Naples and Sicily, continued to agitate France during this reign.

Charles of Anjou, king of Sicily, exercised, by commission from the Pope, the high offices of vicar of the Empire, and senator of Rome. He was also the reigning monarch of the two Sicilies, and invested with the nominal sovereignty of the kingdom of Jerusalem, though that kingdom had ceased to exist. The vices of the king of Sicily were yet more hurtful to him than the displeasure of the Pope ; and the luxury, insolence, and cruelty, by which his french troops provoked the general resentment of the Sicilians, were still more fatal to his cause.

Incensed at the liberties the French took with their women, the Sicilians formed a scheme of insurrection. This was the famous and terrible SICILIAN VESPERS.

The plot was, that at the tolling of the evening bell for prayers on Easter-day (1282), the islanders should rush suddenly upon the French, and put them to death without exception. This was executed with such general fury, that in less than two hours a massacre had taken place of all the French, whatever their age, sex, or condition.

The kingdom of France was thrilled with horror, and at the same time seized with a desire of revenge for so dreadful a slaughter. Numbers of the best warriors in that kingdom offered their services to Charles of Anjou, to avenge the death of their murdered countrymen; and Pedro of Arragon, finding his adherents unable to cope with the french chivalry, was reduced to evade the combat by a device. He sent a challenge to Charles of Anjou, defying him to meet him with a hundred knights, and decide their differences by the issue of that encounter.

Bordeaux, as a neutral territory, was assigned as the place of combat. Charles immediately accepted the defiance, and went to the place appointed with his hundred attendants. But Pedro did not intend to encounter him and his

knights as his challenge implied. He indeed kept his appointment; but he appeared in disguise, and avoided the combat, alleging that, as Philip, king of France, was present in Bordeaux at the time, it was no longer an equal place of meeting for a prince who came to fight with that king's uncle.

Charles of Anjou had left in Sicily his son, a high spirited young man, called Charles the lame, from an accident which had befallen him in his youth. He commanded as regent during his father's absence. This youth, although warned by his father to act upon the defensive, rashly encountered the fleet of Arragon, commanded by the famous Andrew Doria, the ally of don Pedro. Charles was defeated and taken by this celebrated mariner, and Charles of Anjou his father, giving way to grief, died at the age of sixty-six.

In the mean time, the king of France, to whom the Pope had assigned Arragon, transferable to any of his sons, whom he should name, conveyed the right thus rested in him to his third son, Charles of Valois, and prepared with a strong army and fleet to put him in possession of his new dominions.

For this purpose, Philip the Hardy invaded Catalonia, and besieged Gerona. Pedro of Arragon came to its relief, with a small army. Rollo of Nesle, constable of France, drew the

spanish prince into an ambuscade by shewing only a small part of his forces. In this skirmish Pedro was nearly made prisoner, and was obliged to cut the reins of his horse, in order to escape the grasp of a french man-at-arms. He escaped from the field, but died in consequence of a wound and the fever which ensued.

This success was overbalanced by an advantage obtained by Doria over the french fleet. Many of Philip's vessels were sunk and destroyed, and as these were loaded with provisions for the use of the army besieging Gerona, the sufferings of the French became so extreme that it was impossible for them to remain longer before the place. The siege was therefore raised, and the king, whose hopes were thus disappointed, withdrew to Perpignan, where he shortly after died of chagrin. This prince, although not a man of shining talent, bears nevertheless a fair character in the french annals; and is said to have been particularly scrupulous in the mode of raising the revenue from his people, who never complained of the sums exacted, as they were levied with so much fairness and attention to the convenience of the indigent.

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## TALE XIX.

## PHILIP IV. CALLED THE FAIR (1285).

PHILIP IV., who succeeded his father, was surnamed *le Bel*, or the Fair, from the beauty of his countenance, and the majesty of his person. His father left him an exhausted treasury and a ruinous and unsuccessful war undertaken against Spain. Edward I. of England now demanded the territory of *Xaintonge*, a district adjacent to the english possessions in *Guienne*. Philip saw the necessity of acceding, and Edward became a party to a negociation by which the quarrel with Castile was in some degree accommodated, and the peace of Europe restored.

But in consequence of an accidental quarrel between a norman and a gascon sailor, which led to a battle betwixt their two vessels, the king of France issued a summons, commanding Edward, as a peer of that kingdom, to appear before the french parliament under pain of forfeiting his fiefs in that kingdom. Edward, desirous to avoid a rupture, offered to yield to the French six castles in *Guienne*, for security that he would make amends should he be found in the wrong; and also as pledges

that he would meet the king of France and discuss their difference in an amicable conference.

Philip solemnly agreed to this arrangement, but broke it nevertheless soon after. He took possession of the six fortresses, but only made use of them to facilitate the conquest of the english province of Gascony. A french fleet and flying army was even employed to attack the coasts of England, by which Kent was invaded and Dover burnt. Notwithstanding these provocations, the king of England was unwilling to engage in a war with France at this moment. He had been anxiously employed, during the last years of the thirteenth century, in attempting to possess himself of the sovereignty of Scotland. Edward I. was induced therefore to trust to some favourable opportunity of revenge against France.

In the month of August 1297, however, it seemed to him that Scotland was so effectually pacified, as to permit a great effort for the chastisement of France. For this object Edward transported to Flanders a gallant army of English, and formed a confederacy with several princes. The allies were the emperor of Germany, the dukes of Austria and Brabant, the earl of Flanders, and other german and flemish princes, who engaged, for considerable sums of money to be paid by the king of England,

to assemble a combined army for the invasion of France.

Philip, who beheld himself threatened by a formidable confederacy, contrived to break up the alliance by the distribution of large sums among its members. Yet the king retained a strong feeling of revenge against Guy de Dampierre, the earl of Flanders, and marched against him with a great force. At the same time he put in motion the numerous malecontents of the great towns in Flanders, the inhabitants of which were extremely mutinous, and much disposed to insurrection.

By foreign invasion and domestic insurrection, the earl was likely to be ruined, had not Edward of England moved to his assistance, and saved him from the revenge of France. No battle of consequence ensued; Edward was disgusted with the great expense which he had bestowed, to no purpose, upon his german confederates; and Philip, who had encountered more difficulties than he expected in his campaign in Flanders, was also desirous of accommodation. A mutual friend to both monarchs offered his services as mediator. This was Charles, king of Sicily, called Charles the lame.

He was cousin german to the king of France, being the son of his uncle, Charles of Anjou. But the Pope was finally admitted as mediator,

instead of the king of Sicily, and he discharged his duty impartially. Edward made his homage for Gascony (A. D. 1307), and France and England entered into a mutual alliance against any one who should disturb the one king or the other in any way. Boniface, who had had a quarrel with Philip, resumed his attacks. He attempted to fix upon him, a certain Bernard Laiseti, for whom, without the king's consent, he had created a bishoprick. He sent this man, in the character of a legate, to Philip, who in requital turned him out of his dominions. The Pope had already made public his determination to excommunicate the king of France; and the bull was prepared for that purpose. To avert this sentence, Philip sent into Italy two determined agents, who having levied a strong body of partisans, seized upon the person of the Pope, then residing at his native town in Tuscany, insulted, and even buffeted him, and would most probably have taken his life, had he not been rescued by a party of the people, after several days of confinement. The disgrace which he had undergone, so affected his spirits that he died furiously mad.

Such was the miserable end of a Pontiff, who is said to have *entered the Church like a fox, ruled it like a lion, and died like a dog*. Philip the Fair, thus freed from his opponent, took especial care to establish a close and powerful



interest with the two succeeding Popes, and prevailed so far as to induce them to reside at Avignon in France.

In 1310, there occurred an important historical transaction, respecting which it is difficult to form a judgment. I have already told you that there existed two great fraternities of military monks, both of which were formed in the Holy Land : the one had for its object the defence of the Temple; the other was associated as knights Hospitallers, or knights of St. John; and both held out, as their principal object, THE DEFENCE OF PALESTINE. Both these communities, but in a particular degree the Templars, fell under public obloquy, on account of their immense wealth, and the lax morals of individual members. Two brethren of the order of the Temple had been condemned by their grand master, or president, to perpetual imprisonment. These criminals, desperate at their rigorous sentence, intimated, that if released from imprisonment, they could disclose to the french government some circumstances of a mysterious and highly criminal nature, concerning their order. These men being examined, said that the secret rules of the order of the Temple were contrary to the christian religion, to decency, and to morality. One hundred and forty of the knights were arrested at once within the kingdom of France; and

many of them being tortured, confessed charges similar to those averred by the knights who lodged the original accusation; but a very considerable number of the imprisoned Templars, firmly asserted their innocence. "We are but men," said they, "and as such have our failings; but to be guilty of what is imputed to us, we must be fiends." The Pope himself held a council on this affair, in which the dissolution of the order was finally resolved, but it was only in France that its members suffered condemnation to death.

Fifty or sixty of them maintained their innocence with their last breath, and citing their persecutors to answer before God for the cruelties exercised upon them. JACQUES DE MOLAY, grand master of the order, with two of its other principal officers, were brought before the king of France and the Pope, and examined on the several points of the charge: at first they admitted some part of the accusation against them, and denied others; upon which partial confession they were condemned to be burnt to death by a slow fire. When brought to execution, after retracting what they had formerly uttered, they declared like the rest who were executed, that they had individually committed sins incident to mortals,\* but that their order had never been stained by any such iniquities as had been alleged against them.

The procedure against this celebrated society added considerably to the odium with which the latter days of Philip the Fair were clouded. His flemish war had exhausted his revenues, and he saw that the public dissatisfaction would render it difficult to raise funds for its renewal. The terrors, therefore, of a war for which he could not provide, and which was greatly unpopular in France, increased his embarrassment; his spirits sunk beneath such a load of evils and disgrace, and he died a prey to melancholy.

Philip the Fair left three sons, Louis, Philip, and Charles, each of whom ascended the throne in turn, but all died without issue.

## TALE XX.

LOUIS X., PHILIP V. AND CHARLES IV. (1314  
TO 1327).

Louis X., whom the French called Hutin, next ascended the throne (1314). The first point he had to consider, was the bringing to account the favourite of the deceased monarch, Enguerrand de Marigny, who had been the agent of Philip's exactions, and was supposed to have peculated enormously, as the money passed through his hands. He was called before

the princes of the blood, and closely interrogated by the brother of the late king, Charles, count of Valois. "Where," said the count, "are the treasures of the late king?" "You shall have a good account of them," answered the prisoner haughtily. "Give it me then on the spot," said the prince. "Since you press me to speak," replied Marigny, "I have given *you* one half, and with *the other half* I have paid his majesty's debts." "You lie!" replied the prince in a rage. "You lie yourself!" replied Marigny.

In consequence of this insulting and intemperate conduct, he was arrested and brought to trial for embezzlement of the royal revenue, and for abuse of his late master's favour. The new king was present at this trial, and looked on the accused with some compassion, which the other princes interpreting into a desire to screen Marigny, determined to charge him and his wife with having trafficked with a sorcerer, and an old woman deemed a witch, for the purpose of making waxen images representing the king and princes; which, being dissolved at a slow fire, the strength and substance of those they resembled were expected to decay in the same proportion. The king, believing in a practice, which was at that time an object of general credulity, was startled at the accusation, gave up Marigny to the vengeance

of his uncle the count of Valois, and the unfortunate favourite was hanged.

The sorcerer and the witch shared his fate, and his wife was condemned to perpetual imprisonment.

Louis now began to think of a second marriage, and in order to remove the impediment offered by his first wife Margaret being in existence, he caused her to be privately strangled. She had been imprisoned some time on a charge of infidelity. He then selected for his consort Clemence, daughter of Charles Martel, king of Hungary, (A. D. 1315): the royal couple were crowned at Rheims; but the festivities were scarcely over when Louis was obliged to think of war.

The same count Robert of Flanders, who had been so troublesome to Philip the Fair, was still in open insurrection, and it was necessary to send an army against him, although the public finances were in bad order. The young king was much embarrassed, but he was not destined long to remain so. He died in 1316, the year after his marriage and the first of his reign. Four months after his death, his queen gave birth to a prince who lived only a few days. PHILIP, the brother of Louis Hutin, who had been regent since the king's death, was now declared king, and began his reign by extending his influence among the nobility. He gave in marriage to some of the most powerful, his

four daughters,\* and with them considerable appanages, thereby attaching them to his interest. One of these, was Louis of Flanders, whose family had given so much trouble to Philip the Fair, and had threatened the short reign of Louis Hutin. Philip V., called the Long, renewed the league with Scotland, and was upon good terms with Edward II. of England, his brother-in-law. But unhappily like his great ancestor St. Louis, he marred his good policy by thinking it indispensable to undertake a crusade as soon as opportunity should permit, and began already to prepare for it. The people of France were stirred up by friars and enthusiasts, who pretended to have discovered by inspiration that it was the divine will to rescue Palestine, not by the means of the great and powerful of the world, but by shepherds and peasants. This doctrine becoming general, bands of the lowest and most ignorant persons enrolled themselves under various leaders, and traversed the country, under the name of Pastoureaux.

Unfortunately they soon found an opportunity of exercising their ignorant brutality without quitting France. The Jews, who had been persecuted and banished by Philip the Fair, and restored by his successor, once again became the objects of popular hatred, by a new accusation, adapted to the credulity of

an ignorant age. A pestilential, or epidemic disease was at this time ravaging France, and it was said that the Jews had accepted a bribe from the mahometan princes, and had undertaken to poison all the wells, fountains, and rivers; the charge of participation in this crime was extended to a set of unfortunate wretches who were rather objects of compassion, than suspicion. These were persons afflicted with leprosy, who were obliged to live in hospitals apart from the rest of mankind; they were said to have joined with the Jews in the iniquitous project. The accusation was easily and greedily swallowed by the populace, who being already in arms turned them against the Jews and the lepers, and tore them to pieces, or burnt them alive without scruple. Five hundred Jews bravely defended a castle (into which they had thrown themselves,) with stones, arrows, and javelins, and other missiles, till having no weapons left, they launched their living children from the walls on the heads of their assailants, and finally put each other to the sword, rather than die by the hands of the multitude.

At Vitry, also fifty Jews distinguished themselves by a similar act of horrible despair; they chose with composure two of their number, a young woman, and an old man, to put the rest of their company to death. When all the others were slain, the old man received his

death from the hand of the female, who then threw herself from the walls of the place; but not being dead she was barbarously thrown by the besiegers into the fire which consumed the dead bodies. The king was obliged to submit to the popular prejudice. He banished the Jews, and by proclamation confined the lepers to the respective hospitals, under the penalty of being burnt alive. The royal troops were next employed in putting down the Pastoureaux, and other tumultuous assemblies, and restoring the peace of the kingdom. Philip the Long died in 1322, having reigned five years, and was succeeded by his brother CHARLES THE FAIR. He became desirous of ridding himself of his wife Blanche (imprisoned for infidelity) without resorting to the extremities adopted by Louis Hutin; and obtained permission from Rome to divorce himself from his faithless consort. He shortly after espoused Margaret, daughter of Henry of Luxembourg, seventh emperor of Germany of that name: Margaret was killed by the overturning of her carriage.

As his third wife Charles the Fair married, with dispensation, a cousin of his own, who survived him many years. She had no male offspring.

The affairs of England becoming rather perplexed now attracted Charles's attention. There had been for a long time a friendly under-



standing betwixt the courts of England and France; but in 1322, some disturbances occurred in Guienne, which made Charles the Fair demand in more peremptory terms than usual, that the king of England should appear and render homage for the possessions he still occupied in France. Edward II. enjoined his wife (sister of the French king) to go to France and negotiate between her brother and her husband; but the presence of Edward himself was still required by Charles, as a condition of the restoration of Guienne. Again Isabella interposed her mediation, and procured the consent of France for the prince of Wales to perform the homage instead of the king. This was regularly transacted in the course of a few days.

Charles the fair began suddenly to feel himself in an infirm state, and soon after died at bois de Vincennes (1327), and the descendants of HUGO CAPET in the first line were extinct by his death.

## TALE XXI.

PHILIP VI. OF VALOIS (1327).

PHILIP OF VALOIS succeeded Charles the Fair, and soon after his accession summoned Edward III. of England to do homage for his

french possessions. He resolved to submit to the summons for the present. But to avoid the inference that, by rendering this homage, he acknowledged the right of Philip of Valois as king of France, Edward, in his own secret council, entered a solemn protest, that such homage as he should at this time pay to Philip should not prejudice his own hereditary right to the kingdom of France in virtue of his mother Isabella. He then went to France with a noble train of knights and peers, where Philip met him with a retinue suitable to the occasion. The meeting of the sovereigns was in the cathedral of Amiens. The english king appeared in a robe of crimson velvet embroidered with leopards of gold. He wore a royal crown on his head, was girt with his sword, and had golden spurs on his heels.

The king of France received him seated in a chair before which a cushion was laid for the king of England to kneel upon. As he refused that act of humiliation, the grand chamberlain of France insisted, that he should lay aside the regal ornaments, and that the homage should be rendered kneeling, bare-headed and without sword, girdle, or spurs. Edward was extremely angry at being obliged to divest himself in such an assembly of the usual marks of his rank. However prudence decided him to submit, and it is probable his hatred to

Philip of Valois was greatly increased by being subjected to this public indignity. The ceremony being performed, and the english possessions in France so far secured, Edward returned to England and resumed the government which had been entrusted to his mother.

In the year 1337, Robert, count of Artois, having been disgraced, fled to England in disguise, and being a near relation of Edward, received welcome and protection; from his politic character he soon found the way to the king's ear; and employed his influence to persuade Edward of the practicability of asserting his title to the crown of France in right of his mother. Edward, flattered by the hopes excited by so wise a counsellor, and not having forgotten the scene of humiliation at Amiens, resolved on a war with France.

Philip, to face this gathering storm, took the field, with an army of one hundred thousand men, but cautiously avoided a combat, which might have cost him his throne. The summer passed away without any remarkable event.

In the spring of 1340 Edward went to England to hold his parliament for the purpose of requiring new subsidies from his subjects: and having settled his affairs at home he resolved to return to the continent, although the french fleet, amounting to four hundred sail, with

forty thousand men on board, was prepared to intercept him on the sea. These vessels were hired from the republic of Genoa, and manned with sailors from that state. On the 22<sup>d</sup> June 1340, the king of England set sail with two hundred and sixty vessels well manned with archers and men-at-arms. Other vessels conveyed english ladies and gentlewomen who went over to pay their respects to the queen; whom Edward had left behind him in Flanders, as a pledge of his return. When the English approached the harbour of Sluyse, where they intended to disembark, they beheld it occupied by so many vessels, that the masts and streamers seemed like a forest. The king demanded of the master of his vessel "what he conceived this navy to be." "They are," said the master, "ships fitted out by the french king to despoil your majesty's coasts, and interrupt your commerce, and now it is their object to take your person." "Ha!" said the king, "I have long desired to meet them, and now I will make them dearly pay the displeasures they have done me."

The king as admiral commanded his fleet to cast anchor for the night. On the next morning having arranged the vessels bearing the ladies, at such a distance, that they might see the conflict without danger, Edward with his ships of war took a course which was calculated

Upon information that his ancient enemy had invaded France, Philip collected the whole force of his kingdom; together with those of his allies, John of Luxembourg; the old king of Bohemia, with his son Charles, Emperor elect of Germany; the duke of Lorraine; John of Hainalt, once the king of England's ally; Louis earl of Flanders, and Jacques, titular king of Majorca. The titles of some of these princes were more considerable than their power, but still by their assistance, and that of his own liege-men and great vassals, Philip found himself at the head of a powerful and gallant army, which emboldened him to swear resolutely that the king of England should not return to his own country without battle, in which he should be sufficiently punished for the slaughter, depredation, and violence which he was now exercising in the kingdom of France. The greater part of Philip's army was assembled at St. Denis, close to Paris; but the king himself, assuming the command of such forces as could be got presently in readiness, moved down the Seine to defend Rouen, the capital of Normandy, which was threatened by the English.

Edward divided his strong army into three bodies; the first of which he commanded himself; the second under the earl of Warwick; and the third commanded by sir Godfrey of

Harcourt who was the king's adviser as principal marshal of his army during all this expedition.

The city of Caen, full of merchandise and wealth of every kind, was carried by storm, after such a resistance, that Edward, in resentment, would have burnt the place to the ground, had not sir Godfrey Harcourt's intercession deterred him from such violence. While Normandy was sustaining this severe treatment from the land forces in the interior, the english fleet was as busily employed plundering, destroying, and burning the sea-port towns on the coast, with the shipping which they contained. In this manner the english monarch ascended the left bank of the river Seine, with the project of assaulting Rouen. This was however prevented by the march of Philip of Valois to its relief. The river Seine now divided the two armies, and all bridges being broken down, neither party durst pass, lest in the act of doing so, they should be taken at a disadvantage by that which held the opposite bank.

In the mean time the citizens of Paris were in the utmost confusion, knowing the approach of the english army, and afraid of the terrors of military execution, attendant on the march of Edward, who was by no means famed for clemency. It soon however became plain, that Edward had no design against the french

capital, for he made a sudden movement upon Poissy, repaired the bridge there, which had been but imperfectly destroyed, and, by a military manœuvre, crossed the Seine, and moved estward towards Flanders, thus extricating himself from the difficulty in which Philip conceived him to be involved.

When the english monarch had attained the right bank of the Seine, the fires raised by his soldiery, in their destructive progress, alarmed the capital once more; but the English after defying the king of France to battle, departed towards Beauvais where they burnt the suburbs. In this manner Edward pursued his course towards Flanders, closely followed by Philip and his army. The march of the English was interrupted by the deep river Somme, where every bridge had been destroyed; but Edward had the satisfaction to learn that during the ebb-tide which happens twice in twelve hours the river is so low that it may be passed with security at a certain ford. Edward drew his army thither, whereas the flood was still making he was compelled to wait an hour or two. In the mean time sir Gondemar de Fay, with his french forces amounting to near twelve thousand, drew up upon the opposite side of the river, resolved to dispute the passage. But the moment the ford was practicable Edward plunged in, and calling aloud, "*let those who love me*

*follow,*" gained the opposite bank with his army in good order; notwithstanding a valiant opposition of the French who defended it..

This was a very important manœuvre on the part of the English, for the main army of Philip followed so close that part of Edward's rear-guard suffered from the van-guard of the French, before they could cross the river. Philip himself soon came up, and being greatly disappointed at finding how the English monarch had again extricated himself from the risk of being compelled to fight at a disadvantage, accused sir Gondemar de Fay of disloyalty and treason.

By the advice of his best leaders, the French king agreed not to follow the English by the ford, lest they should turn back and attack him in the passage; but drawing off his army to Abbeville, he judged it better to secure the bridge over the Somme at that town, and spend a day there to refresh his troops, and give some forces which followed him time to come up. In the mean while Edward, being now on ground fitted for engaging the enemy, declared his purpose that he would pursue his retreat no farther; but fight with Philip of Valois, whatever the difference of numbers might be. — "This country of Ponthieu was the just heritage of queen Eleanor, my mother," said he, "I



now challenge it as my own, and may God defend the right!"

The place where he made this declaration was open ground near the forest of Cressy, a name which has been made memorable by the events of the following day. The army of the English was here drawn up in three divisions, to await the advance of the French. In the first was Edward, prince of Wales, called, from the colour of his armour, **THE BLACK PRINCE**. He was now in his sixteenth year, but of strength and courage far beyond his age, and whose short life has made historians observe, that few characters have put more feats of heroism into the compass of so few years. The second battalion consisted of eight hundred men-at-arms, two thousand four hundred archers, and four thousand three hundred bill-men. The full amount of the English army, was probably about thirty thousand men. These three divisions were drawn up in the order which they were to preserve in battle, and then desired to take refreshment and to sleep on their arms. The night was warm, and rendered repose acceptable and refreshing to troops fatigued with long marches, and spare diet.

Next morning, the memorable 26<sup>th</sup> of August 1346, the English army arose in good order, and awaited the French forces which were some time in coming up. During this interval,

to increase the enthusiasm of his soldiers, Edward conferred the honor of knighthood on the prince of Wales, and a large band of noble youths, companions of the heir-apparent, who were expected so to behave in the conflict as to *win their spurs*; that is to show themselves worthy of the distinction they had received, by their admission into the order of chivalry, of which the spurs were an emblem. Philip, mustering his army at sunrise, led them forth from the town of Abbeville, where they had passed the night, and with more haste than caution, advanced towards the English, a distance of between three and four leagues. The march of this great army was hurried like a pursuit rather than a preparation for battle; yet all did not partake the sanguine hopes which dictated these hasty movements. A veteran german warrior recommended Philip to put off the battle till next morning, observing that the English had reposed in a position that they had deliberately chosen, and doubtless would not shrink from it without a desperate defence, while the french forces were fatigued with their hasty march from Abbeville.

The king of France seemed disposed to follow this advice; but fate had decreed otherwise. The troops, impatient to encounter their enemies, began brandishing their swords and cried out "to the attack," so that delay was impos-

sible, and Phillip was thus hurried forward to battle by the want of discipline of his troops. He had divided his army into three bodies. The first was under the command of the king of Bohemia, seconded by his son Charles of Luxembourg, and of Charles, earl of Alençon, the brother of king Philip, a brave but fiery and rash young cavalier. The Genoese cross-bowmen, fifteen thousand in number, were all placed in this first division. They were considered a match for the english archers, and it was hoped that their superior discharge in the commencement of the action, would clear the field of these formidable forces. They had also more than twenty nine thousand men to support their bow-men. The second division was commanded by Philip himself, with his broad banner displayed, surrounded by six thousand men-at-arms, and forty thousand foot. The king of Bohemia, who was old, and nearly blind, was afterwards posted in this second division, as well as James, the titular king of Majorca. — The rear division was led by the earl of Savoy, with five thousand lances, and twenty thousand foot. These large bodies appear to have been unequally divided, probably owing to the state of confusion into which the french army was thrown by their too hasty advance.

On the approach of the Genoese towards the english position, they gave signs of fatigue

from marching three long leagues, with their weighty cross-bows. When the word was given to begin the battle, in the name of God and St. Denis, the Italians answered by remonstrances, saying they had more need to rest than to fight that day. This enraged Alençon, the commander of the division, who reiterated the order for instant attack, and the Genoese, approaching the prince of Wales's division, attempted to daunt the english archers by leaping and shouting: but they remained firm and steady. The Genoese advanced a second time without making any impression, and at last had recourse to their cross-bows; but the English, who seemed only to wait for the commencement of hostilities, stepped one pace forward, and then shot their arrows so closely together that it seemed as if it snowed. The volleys of the Genoese bolts were repaid with this incessant storm of arrows, and with such interest, that the Italians became unable to keep their ground. Their strings had been wetted by the rain, while those of the English had been secured in cases which they carried for the purpose. Finally there were eight or ten arrows returned, for every cross-bow shaft discharged; and the Genoese, unable to withstand the english archers, lost heart, and cutting their strings, or throwing away their bows, they rushed back in confusion upon the rest

of the van-guard, and especially upon the men-at-arms, who were designed to have supported them.

The confusion thus occasioned in the french army became irretrievable, as the recoil of the cross-bow-men prevented the advance of the knights and squires, upon whom the ultimate fate of the day depended. The king of France added to the confusion by calling on the cavalry to advance to the charge, without any regard to the cross-bow-men, who now a confused multitude of fugitives, lay straight in the way of their advance. "Slay me these peasants," said he, "since they do but trouble us;" and the men at arms advanced at full gallop on the unfortunate Italians, who were thus trodden down and killed, while the ranks of the cavalry were disordered by riding over them, before they could reach the enemy.

The english archers kept pouring their shafts without a moment's intermission. Many of the bravest french knights lay stretched upon the plain, who might have been made captives with ease; but Edward, to prevent his soldiers quitting their ranks, had strictly forbidden taking prisoners during the action.

The courage of Aleuçon, and the native bravery of the french cavaliers impelled them still forward, notwithstanding the loss occasioned by the horrible confusion. A part of them

extricated themselves at length from the unfortunate Genoese, and pushed on along the line of english archers, by which they suffered great loss, until at length they arrived on their right flank, where the prince of Wales was placed at the head of his men-at-arms. By these the French were so roughly encountered that the greater part were beaten down and killed: but three squadrons of French and Germans rushed on with such impetuosity in the same direction, that they burst an opening for themselves through the archers, who had but imperfect means of repelling horse, and dashed furiously up to the place where the gallant prince was stationed. The earl of Warwick now became alarmed, for he concluded that the standards of the french king and his numerous army were following close upon the new comers.

In this belief Warwick and Chandos sent to Edward, requesting succour for his valiant son. "Is he dead, wounded, or felled to the ground?" said the king. "Not so, thank God," answered the messenger. "Then," replied Edward, "he needs no aid from me; let him bear himself like a man, and this day shew himself worthy of the knighthood conferred on him: in this battle he must win his spurs."

In the mean time a strong detachment of men-at-arms sent by the earls of Arundel and

Northampton, the commanders of the second division, had relieved prince Edward from his temporary embarrassment; and now the english archers, opening in the centre, their cavaliers rushed forward and encountered the french men-at-arms, who were soon in total confusion. The king of France himself continued to fight with the greatest valour, though wounded and dismounted, and would probably have died on the field, had not lord John of Hainault led him off by force. Not more than sixty of his gallant army remained in attendance upon their sovereign, and with these he reached, after night fall, the castle of Broye. When the warder demanded who he was: "I am," said the king, "the fortune of France."

The most remarkable death, among those of so many princes, was that of John of Bohemia; he was, as I have told you, old, and almost blind, and consequently ill qualified to mix personally in the fight. When all seemed lost, the old man enquired after his son Charles, who was not to be found, having been compelled to fly from the field. He then said to the knights who attended him: "Sirs, ye are my knights and good liege-men, will ye conduct me so far into the battle, that I may strike one good stroke with my sword ere I die?" Four faithful knights agreed to share their valiant master's death rather than leave him to perish

alone; they tied the old king's bridle to their own, and rushed into the middle of the fight, where they were found the next day, as they had fallen, with their horses' reins tied together.

Thus ended this celebrated battle. There lay upon the field of Cressy two kings, eleven princes, eighty bannerets, one thousand two hundred knights, and more than thirty thousand private soldiers.

The meeting of Edward and his son took place by torch-light after the battle. "Well, have you won your spurs," said the brave king; "persevere in the career which you have opened, and you will become the brightest honor of the noble kingdom of which you are the worthy heir."

The battle of Cressy was one of the greatest victories ever gained by a king of England, and Edward prepared to avail himself of it, in a manner which should produce some permanent advantage.

## TALE XXII.

### SIEGE OF CALAIS. (1346.)

EDWARD promised himself from his great victory to obtain a firm footing in Normandy.



He resolved to lay siege to Calais, a sea-port rich and strongly fortified, and immediately opposite to the coast of England: he therefore sat down before Calais with his large army shortly after the battle of Cressy, and proceeded by every means in his power to press the siege.

Philip, in this emergency, endeavoured to prevail on the scottish nation, and their king David II., to declare war against England, by which means he hoped that Edward might be disturbed in his siege of Calais. The Scottish king and nation did so, and were defeated at the battle of Neville's Cross, near Durham (1346, october 17), and their king was made prisoner.

The siege of Calais continued; the French making many desperate efforts to relieve it, and particularly in furnishing provisions by sea. The low and swampy situations of the grounds about the town exposed the besiegers to great losses by sickness, and the garrison of Calais made many sallies, which were partially successful. During this time the embarrassment of Philip was augmented by the continued warfare in Bretagne; but he exerted himself to obtain sufficient forces for the purpose of compelling Edward to raise the siege of Calais.

The inhabitants of that city, when reduced to the last extremity, sent a messenger by sea,

with letters to Philip, saying, that his good people of Calais, having eaten their horses, dogs and rats, had nothing to subsist upon, unless they fed upon each other, and conjured the king to succour them, otherwise the town must certainly be lost. The vessel bearing these letters was taken by the English, and Edward, having perused their contents, sent them on, with a taunting indorsement, asking, "Why he came not to rescue his people of Calais, who were so distressed for his sake?"

Philip immediately assembled his army, and marched to attempt the relief of the besieged. Edward, considering the extreme importance of the place, and the trouble, expense and loss which it had cost him to bring it to its present reduced state, was determined that no effort of the king of France should avail. He strongly fortified the approaches on every point. Along the sea shore ships were placed well supplied with artillery, and the shore was strongly defended. Similar defences were constructed on the causeway which approached the town, by the bridge of Neuillet. When Philip approached the neighborhood of Calais with his immense host, he had the mortification to find that he could not attempt to enter the town on either side. After displaying his great army at a place called Sandgate, in sight of Calais and its besiegers, he was compelled to withdraw without fighting.

He endeavoured to rouse the pride of Edward by a letter defying him to leave his fortifications and fight in open field. Edward replied, " that he took no counsel from an adversary; that he had been before Calais for more than a year, and had reduced the place to a state of extremity; that he would not risk the advantage he had gained; and if Philip wished a passage into the town, he might seek it as he best could. " The hopes of the people of Calais had been at first strongly excited, when they beheld from the towers the numerous forces of France advancing to their relief; but when they saw the pennons of Philip's host retiring, they knew all hopes were at an end; and having suffered to the last extremity, they at length lowered the banner of France and displayed that of England in sign of submission. But their resistance had so exasperated Edward, that he would not receive their surrender unless they yielded implicitly to his mercy without any capitulation, either for their lives or property; this severity was objected to even by his own commanders.

He then demanded that six of the chief burgesses of the town should come before him, bare-headed, bare-footed, and in their shirts, having halters around their necks, and bearing the keys of the town and castle of Calais, which were to be humbly surrendered to him.

On these terms he promised mercy to the rest of the citizens.

The conditions were read in the town, and caused a general lamentation, for how could they hope to find six persons to devote themselves to such humiliation? But after some deliberation, one of the most considerable burgesses of the city addressed the assembly. His name EUSTACHE DE ST. PIERRE, ought never to be forgotten while disinterested patriotism is held valuable among mankind. "He that shall contribute to save this fair town from sack and spoil," said this gallant man, "though at the price of his own blood, shall doubtless deserve well of God, and of his country. I will be one who will offer my head to the king of England, as a ransom for the inhabitants of Calais." The assembly were moved to tears and exclamations of gratitude. Five other burgesses caught emulation from the noble devotion of Eustache de St. Pierre, and offered to partake with him the honorable peril which he had incurred. They quickly put themselves into the humiliating attire demanded by Edward, but which, in such a cause, was more honorable than the robes of the garter which that king had lately instituted. They were conducted before Edward, who looking on them with indignation, upbraided them with the losses he had sustained through their obstinacy, and

commanded them to be beheaded. Sir Walter Manny and the bravest english nobles and warriors interfered to prevent the execution, and even the prince of Wales failed to obtain their pardon.

The queen Philippa was the last resource of these unfortunate men. She had recently joined her husband's camp, and, when she saw that Edward was inflexible, she rose hastily from her seat, and knelt before the king, saying, with many tears, " Ah! my lord and husband, have I not a right to ask a boon of you? Let me now pray you in honor of our blessed Redeemer, and for love of me, that you would take pity upon these six prisoners." Edward after some hesitation granted her petition. The gracious queen rejoiced at having prevailed in her suit, and having changed the dishonourable attire of the burgesses for new clothing, gave each of them six *nobles* (pieces of money) for immediate use; caused them to be safely conveyed through the english host and set at liberty.

Edward III. had no sooner obtained possession of Calais, than he studied to secure it by fortifications and otherwise; but particularly endeavoured by changes among its inhabitants to render it an important and permanent possession of the crown of England. For this purpose he dispossessed the inhabitants of Calais.

(who were indeed much reduced in numbers) of their houses and property within the town, and conferred them on Englishmen. The new inhabitants whom he established were principally citizens from London, besides a considerable number from the county of Kent, to whom he assigned the lands and tenements of the French.

Calais became from that period, until the reign of Philip and Mary, in all respects a colony of England. Finally Edward agreed to a truce with France, which lasted from 1347 until the year 1355. Shortly afterwards the king of France united Dauphiny to the crown, by marrying his grandson Charles to the heiress of that province. The dauphin retired from the world and became a monk, and Charles was the first french prince who bore the title of DAUPHIN, afterwards adopted as that of the successor to the crown of France. He is often termed duke of Normandy, a county which his father John possessed until he succeeded to the crown.

In 1349 Philip of Valois wedded the princess Blanche, sister of the king of Navarre; but he did not long survive this union. He died (1350), in the twenty third year of his reign; and fifty seventh of his age. Philip was hated by the nobility on account of the frequent encroachments which he made on their privileges, and for the readiness with which he subjected many

of them to capital punishment. He obtained, at the commencement of his reign, the title of **FORTUNATE**, because, although three persons stood between him and the throne, he nevertheless had the good luck to obtain it; but, as it has happened to other princes, the long course of unsuccessful wars in which he engaged, and the miseries undergone during his reign, would better have entitled him to the surname of the **Unhappy**.

## TALE XXIII.

JOHN II (1350).

**JOHN, DUKE OF NORMANDY**, ascended the throne on the death of his father Philip of Valois. He had attained the age of fifty; having commanded armies with glory, he had acquired reputation both for courage and prudence, and was in every respect a more hopeful prince than his predecessor. Yet, though distinguished by the surname of **THE GOOD**, he early evinced a severity which occasioned much unpopularity.

At a solemn festival at Paris, immediately after his coronation, he caused to be arrested, **Rodolph de Brienne**, count of Eu and of Guines, and constable of France, who was

accused of wishing to let the english monarch have possession of his county of Guines, adjacent to the town of Calais. The unfortunate constable was arrested in presence of the lords of the council, and beheaded after three days confinement, without any form of trial. In the year 1349, the english commander in Bretagne, sir Thomas Dagworth, fell into an ambuscade said to consist of banditti, by whom he was slain in violation of the truce. In resentment of this Henry Plantagenet, already celebrated under the titles of Lancaster and Derby, to which that of earl of Lincoln was now added, was sent as Edward's lieutenant-general into Bretagne, with an army which soon augmented to thirty thousand men. In contempt of the truce which still subsisted, continual skirmishes took place between the French and English. In these stormy times, the various commanders of garrisons made war upon each other as they saw occasion or opportunity without consulting their kings, and in this manner much blood was spilt, of which neither prince was willing to bear the blame. The Pope Innocent XI. used his intercession to prolong the truce, and succeeded in 1353, although he was unable to bring the nations to a solid peace.

About this time king John and his court were extremely disturbed by the intrigues of his



young kinsman, Charles, king of Navarre. This prince, nearly connected with the french crown, his mother being a daughter of Louis X., called Hutin, possessed at once the most splendid and the most diabolical qualities. He was handsome, courageous, affable and liberal. Unfortunately he counterbalanced his good qualities by his bad ones; he was intriguing, ambitious, and capable of executing his designs by the worst of means; he justly merited the title of Charles the Bad, bestowed on him by the French.

Soon after the arrival of this monarch at the court of John (A. D. 1351), he rendered himself so agreeable, that he carried his point of marrying Jean, the daughter of the french monarch. He demanded certain places in Normandy, and when the king, to elude his importunities, conferred that country upon Charles de la Cerda, his constable and favourite, the king of Navarre did not hesitate to assassinate that unfortunate officer in his castle called de l'Aigle in Normandy. He boldly avowed the deed, put himself at the head of troops and affected independence; treated with the English for their assistance; leagued with all the fiery and discontented spirits of the court in opposition to the crown; and threatened to create such confusion, that king John felt himself under the necessity of treating with this dangerous young

man instead of bringing him to justice for his crimes.

In march 1355, this high offender came to Paris, and appeared before the parliament, where the king was seated on the tribunal. He made a formal speech, acknowledging his errors, and asking forgiveness with some affectation of humility. The duke of Bourbon, then constable of France, placed his hands upon those of the royal criminal, in sign of arrest, and led him into another apartment, as if to execution. The queens of France (of whom there were at that time three) threw themselves at the feet of the monarch, to supplicate pardon for one so nearly connected with his family, and the king appeared reluctantly to grant it.

Edward of England, who saw that this discord between John of France and Charles of Navarre would break out into an open flame, made preparations to take advantage of it. For this purpose he named the Black Prince his lieutenant in Gascony and Aquitaine, and sent him over with a considerable army which was augmented to about sixty thousand men. With this large force the young Edward marched into the country of Toulouse, taking several towns which he destroyed; but Charles of Navarre becoming for the present reconciled with the king of France, the prince of Wales returned to Bourdeaux.

While the Black Prince was laying waste southern provinces of France with fire and sword, the father landed at Calais, and marched towards St. Omers, where king John lay at the head of a considerable army. The recollections of Cressy perhaps made the king of France decline an engagement; so that Edward, unable to bring the French to action, returned to his own country to make head against the scottish nation which was again in arms.

The prince of Wales, who had spent the winter in recruiting his little army at Bourdeaux, resolved the next year to sally forth and lay waste the country of the enemy, as he had done the preceding summer. John having determined to intercept him, assembled the whole force of his kingdom, in number of twenty thousand men-at-arms, headed by the king himself, his four sons, and most of the princes of the blood, together with the whole nobility and gentry of France.

Scotland sent him an auxiliary force of two thousand men-at-arms, and with this overpowering army, the king of France marched into Poitou, where prince Edward lay encamped at the village of Maupertuis, within two leagues of Poitiers, and resolved to engage him before he could regain Bourdeaux.

With numbers so unequal the prince of Wales dared hardly attempt a retreat, in which

he was likely to be destroyed by the enemy; he therefore took up a strong position, where the advantage of the ground might in some measure compensate the numerical inferiority. John had the choice of fighting instantly, or of surrounding and blockading the prince's army as it lay. Edward's troops scarcely amounted to the eighth part of those arrayed against him.

This memorable field was a gentle declivity, covered with vineyards, which could only be approached by one road of no great breadth, flanked by thickets and hedges. To add to the strength of the ground the English laboured hard in fortifying it, and disposed every thing so as to cover their ranks with trenches, in addition to the trees, bushes and vineyards by which it was naturally defended. They were then drawn up on the side of the gentle acclivity with the judgment which distinguished their commander.

Sir Eustache de Ribeaumont reconnoitred the English and carried to John of France an account of their disposition. "Sir," said he, "we have seen the enemy. By our guess, they amount to two thousand men-at-arms, four thousand archers, and fifteen hundred, or two thousand other men; which troops appear to form but one division, and their position is almost inaccessible. If you would attack them,

there is but one passage, where four horsemen can ride abreast, which leads to the centre of their line. The hedges which flank this access are lined with archers, and the english main body consists of dismounted men-at-arms, before whom a large body of archers is arranged in the form of a herse, or harrow. By this difficult passage alone can you approach." John, after reflecting, resolved to attack on foot. He commanded therefore his men-at-arms to dismount, cast off their spurs, and cut their spears to the length of five feet, in order to fight as infantry. Three hundred only were commanded to remain mounted, for the purpose of beginning the combat by a charge to make way for the columns of infantry.

The battle having been thus determined upon, a noble churchmān (the cardinal of Perigord) visited both the french and english armies to incline them to peace. The prince of Wales was not unwilling to listen to honorable terms; but the king of France insisted that Edward and his principal lords should remain prisoners. "I will never yield me prisoner," said the prince, "until I am taken sword in hand."

Early the following morning the valiant young prince reviewed the position of his troops, and divided his little army into three, drawn up close in the rear of each other, on the sloping

ground we have described. He also placed apart a body of men-at-arms to go round the hill unobserved and fall on the rear of the French when they should commence the attack.

The French began the battle with the three hundred select men-at-arms mounted, for the purpose of dispersing the archers and forcing a passage for the rest of the army; but they had no sooner entered between the hedges, than the archers commenced a fatal discharge, and frightening the horses, threw the troops into disorder. It was in vain that a great body of dismounted men-at-arms entered the pass under the command of two of the french marshals, to relieve the mounted spearmen; they were driven back upon the second line, commanded by the Dauphin.

At the same time a strong body of english men-at-arms, with a corresponding number of archers, burst unexpectedly from an ambuscade, attacked the french column on the flank and rear, and compelled it to fly. The advantage being now on the side of the English, the prince commanded his cavalry to advance, *in the name of God and saint George*. Upon seeing the approach of this strong body, the french lords who commanded the second division, and had charge of the three younger princes of France, retreated from the battle to preserve, as they afterwards alleged, those royal persons in safe-

ty. The army of the French was now in such confusion that the third division was exposed to all the fury of the english assault. The person of John who commanded it, was placed in the greatest danger; his nobles who fought around him were almost all slain or taken, and the victors, who disputed with each other the glory and advantage of taking so great a prince alive, called out, "*yield, sir, or you die.*" The gallant french monarch disdained the safety which was to be acquired on such conditions and continued to defend himself valiantly with his battle-axe. Finding himself left almost alone, and overpowered by numbers, the unfortunate king expressed a wish to surrender to his cousin the prince of Wales; but he being in a distant part of the field, John gave his gauntlet in token of surrender to sir Denis Morbeque, a Frenchman in the service of the Black Prince. Philip, the youngest son of John, was taken prisoner with his father. He behaved so resolutely on that fatal day, that he acquired the epithet of the Hardy, by which he was afterwards distinguished. The prince of Wales, courteous as brave, caused a banquet to be spread in his pavilion where he entertained the captive monarch with his great nobles. "You shall find my father," said he, "willing to display towards you all honor and friendship, and though you have lost the field, you have attained the glory

of being the bravest knight who has this day fought against us. On the second day after the battle, the Black Prince marched towards Poitiers, which being well defended he did not attack, as he was chiefly desirous of securing his important capture of king John of France; he therefore retired steadily towards Bourdeaux. After spending most of the winter there, he returned to England with his prisoner, and made a solemn entrance into London, where the citizens received him with a sumptuous display of their power and wealth. In the procession which traversed the city on the occasion, John of France appeared in royal array, mounted on a beautiful white charger, while the prince of Wales, avoiding the triumphant display of a victor, rode beside his captive on a little black palfrey.

## TALE XXIV.

DURING THE CAPTIVITY OF JOHN.

THE battle of Poitiers, in 1356, being the disastrous consequence of that of Cressy, had been yet more calamitous. For as the combat had been chiefly on foot, a much larger portion of the french nobility had been slain, and the kingdom was in a great measure deprived



of those on whose courage the defence of the country was supposed chiefly to depend. The three sons of John were too young to be capable of retrieving so dreadful a misfortune as the loss of the battle of Poitiers. The king had left no legal representative; a deficiency which his son Charles the Dauphin endeavoured to supply by summoning a meeting of the Estates of the kingdom; naturally hoping that in a period so calamitous, he should find them disposed to act unanimously, for obtaining the relief of the king, and restoring good order in the kingdom.

Unhappily the members of the national body were tempted by this opportunity of depressing the royal power; and the spirit of Charles of Navarre influenced their deliberations, although his person was confined in the castle of Crève-Cœur.

It was soon evident that their aim was the engrossing the sovereign power themselves. They divided into separate committees for executing various branches of the public service, and transmitted several demands to the Dauphin, who, embarrassed by the grasping spirit displayed by the assembly, endeavoured to evade demands which he could not grant without great hazard to the crown. He dissolved the States in spite of the remonstrances of the citizens of Paris, who, headed by Marcel, the

provost of the merchants, and Rbnsac, the sheriff, declared violently in favour of the assembly being reinstated in their authority.

While these intestine divisions were proceeding with violence in the metropolis, war was laying waste the distant provinces. The celebrated duke of Lancaster was in arms in Normandy, accompanied by lord Godfrey of Harcourt. One only hope remained. Ere the States had dissolved they had granted some supplies to enable the Dauphin, who was also duke of Normandy, to levy a small army to suppress this enemy, and sir Robert Clermont, with about three hundred men-at-arms, and a sufficient body of infantry, marched against sir Godfrey, who after fighting with a courage worthy of his reputation was at length defeated and killed. This battle was fought near Coustances, about november 1356. The duke of Lancaster, in revenge of the death of sir Godfrey Harcourt, besieged Rennes very closely; a truce was however made at the earnest intercession of two cardinals of the church, and the duke reluctantly raised the siege as the town was on the eve of surrendering.

I will now relate to you an incident, to shew the disturbed state of France, during the captivity of its king. William of Granville, a nobleman, dwelt about two leagues from Evreux and often visited it. He was privately attached to

Philip of Navarre, younger brother of Charles the Bad, who served with the english host commanded by the duke of Lancaster; but as he had never borne arms in the quarrel, no suspicion was attached to him, and he had the means of making a strong party among the burgesses. He came by degrees to the open ground before the castle gate for his ordinary promenade, and as the captain sometimes went abroad for refreshment, they became familiar. One day having every thing in readiness to execute an attempt, William of Granville began to amuse the governor with an idle story concerning a pretended attack upon England, by the joint forces of the king of Denmark and the king of Ireland. When the Frenchman demanded whence he had this intelligence, Granville replied that a knight of Flanders had sent the news to him, and with it the most beautiful set of chess-men he had ever seen. This, as was intended, excited the curiosity of the seneschal, who was known to be a great admirer of the game of chess, and Granville, as if to gratify his curiosity, sent for the chess-men, saying that they would play a game together. The board and men were brought, and the seneschal was so imprudent as to admit the knight within the fortress. He was privately armed with a shirt of mail, and held in his hand a small battle-axe, and thus, while

apparently intent on his game, stood prepared to take advantage of such opportunity as should present itself.

In the mean time his valet warned the conspirators to hold themselves in readiness for a signal. The treacherous William of Granville, in the course of the game, seized an opportunity to dash out the captain's brains, and blowing a bugle horn, the burgesses ran to his assistance, and found him bestriding the body of the captain, and defending the gate against such of the garrison as hastily took the alarm. The insurgents soon made themselves masters of Evreux which became a headquarter of the Navarrois faction in Normandy.

Unfortunately the dangerous Charles of Navarre escaped at this time from the castle of Crève-Cœur, in which he had been confined by king John, for his former intrigues. He was received with great joy, not only at Amiens, and other cities, but in Paris itself, where Marcel, the provost of the merchants, became his principal adherent. Charles harangued the Parisians in public, and with great effect; he seemed to declare himself for a republic, or rather an aristocracy, instead of a monarchy, countenancing the claims of the States in opposition to those which were preferred for the crown on the part of the Dauphin and others. Those who adhered to his party obtained the

name of Navarrois. Philip, the brother of Charles, could not be prevailed on to declare in favour of a republic, in which, he said, there could never be order, honor, or stability, but a constant succession of shame and confusion. France was shaken to its centre with internal discord, and its disasters seemed beyond the possibility of increase, when two alarming circumstances carried the general misery to a height hitherto unknown.

We have already mentioned the bands of mercenaries who were always ready to serve the party who promised the greatest share of plunder. These troops were generally English, and though they made no distinction of political principle, they were chiefly followers of the Navarre party. By means of these *companions*, as they were called, Charles of Navarre proposed to carry into effect his dream of a republic, or rather a species of oligarchy, in which doubtless he proposed to act the principal part himself. The Dauphin had long made ineffectual efforts to tranquillize the kingdom; but a second great calamity, namely the insurrection of the peasantry, was the means of strengthening and increasing the army which he assembled. This was the war of the peasants called *Jacquerie*, because the gentry gave them the contemptuous name of Jacques Bonhomme, or Goodman James; it was the most dreadful

scourge which had yet ravaged France. The peasants having been oppressed became in their turn the oppressors, and rising with fury they seized upon such rustic arms as they could procure, determined to destroy all the nobility and gentry in the kingdom. They burnt or pulled down their houses, stormed their castles, ill treated their wives and daughters, and put them to various modes of death equally cruel and protracted. In short they were like fierce bandogs suddenly loosed from their chain. The horrors of this war had this good effect, that it impelled all men of principle to join in putting a stop to so aggravated an evil. The nobility soon united for mutual defence, and found no great difficulty in defeating the frantic peasants, though with the most unequal numbers.

An instance is given by Froissart of an interesting nature. The duchess of Normandy, the duchess of Orleans, and nearly three hundred other ladies of quality, had taken refuge in the town of Meaux. Here they were beset by about nine or ten thousand of the insurgents, and it became apparent that the rabble of the town would take part with the peasantry. The count of Foix, and the capital of Buch, chanced to pass near the town, and heard of the imminent peril of the ladies. The knights were of different political principles. The earl was French, in birth and opinions;

been in a great measure forgotten by his subjects. Finding himself abandoned to his own resources, he endeavoured to accommodate his differences with Edward. By an agreement with this prince, John engaged to surrender Aquitaine, Gascony, Calais, and other fiefs, which Edward and his successors were to hold free of homage, or feudal fealty of any kind; John consented also to pay four millions of gold crowns as ransom for himself and the other prisoners taken at Poitiers. Edward, in consideration of this treaty, agreed to renounce all claim to the title of king of France, as well as all property in Normandy. But the consent of the Estates general was necessary to the validity of the treaty, and they positively refused to accede to the terms. The consequence was, that the preparations for war were resumed with great animosity on both sides, and the king of England assembled an army of a hundred thousand men.

The news that Edward was about to renew the war with a view of absolute conquest, had no small influence on the Navarrais party, and even on Charles himself, who prudently made a peace with the Dauphin on very reasonable conditions. Edward III. commenced his march, and traversing in great order the provinces of Artois and Picardy, he laid siege to the ancient city of Rheims, and it was said that he designed

to have himself crowned there, according to the ancient custom of the kings of France. But the city was gallantly defended: the archbishop encouraged the citizens, and many noblemen with their followers were also in the place.

In 1360, Edward found himself obliged to abandon the siege of Rheims, and drew off his army towards the capital of France, a species of menace repeatedly used by the English during these wars, but with little effect. The Dauphin regent occupied Paris at the head of a numerous army. Edward was too prudent to attempt the assault of a large city so well garrisoned; he therefore retreated towards Bretagne to recruit his forces, while the regent and his council, deeply affected by the scene of desolation which France presented on all sides, saw the necessity of submitting to sue for a peace, however disadvantageous. The articles of peace were of course favourable to England, to whom the king of France relinquished the provinces of Gascony, with various other dependancies in Aquitaine; and in the north of France, the town of Calais, and earldom of Guines. In exchange Edward renounced all title to the crown and kingdom of France, and all claims to Normandy, Touraine, Anjou and Maine. Upon these conditions the peace of Bretigny was founded (A. D. oct. 24, 1360). Difficulties arose concerning the surrender of some



part of the territory and castles yielded to the English; and the high-spirited noblemen who there held fiefs, did not understand being transferred, like a flock of sheep, from the allegiance of one sovereign to another. Many Gascon knights refused. France they said might herself dispense with their faith and homage, but she had no right to substitute a strange king in her place. The dukes of Anjou and Berry, with the dukes of Orleans and of Bourbon, still remained hostages in England for payment of the ransom stipulated for the prisoners of Poitiers. These princes obtained permission to pass to Calais, under pretence that they might be able to furnish the means of concluding the disputed points of the treaty. Instead of doing so, the duke of Anjou took the opportunity of abusing this indulgence, and made his escape into France. King John who had been set at liberty and had returned to France, was deeply hurt and offended at the dishonorable conduct of his son, and took the resolution of restoring to the English their full security for the ransom, by surrendering his own person once more into their hands: saying, *that if faith and loyalty were banished from the rest of the world, they ought still to remain in the hearts of kings.* A very short time after his return to England, John was seized with an indisposition, of which he died in the Savoy

April 8<sup>th</sup> 1364, and his son Charles, who had undergone so many difficulties as regent, now mounted the throne, with the experience which many years of difficulty and misfortune had enabled him to attain, and which has procured for him the well deserved epithet of the Wise.

## TALE XXV.

CHARLES V, CALLED THE WISE (1364).

CHARLES OF FRANCE, the fifty first monarch of that kingdom, took on himself the affairs of his government which were in a very confused state. The dispute concerning Bretagne was not yet determined, and disturbances continued in Normandy, between the Navarrais and the French partisans, the latter of which was headed by a valiant Breton knight, called BERTRAND DU GUESCLIN, to whose courage France owed much during this reign. The Navarrais were commanded by the captal of Buch.

These two leaders gave battle near Cocherel in Normandy. The Navarrais were completely defeated, and their commander fell into the hands of the conquerors. He was received with great distinction by Charles, who would have bestowed upon him an earldom, had the Black Prince permitted the captal to accept it. This


was a fortunate commencement of king Charles's reign ; but it was not without its reverse in Bretagne. The king had sent the aid of a thousand lances to sir Charles de Blois, in order to strengthen his party in Bretagne, while Edward had dispatched the lord Chandos with an equal number, to support the cause of the earl of Montfort, son of John de Montfort, and his heroic countess (remarkable for her defence of Hennebon). These inveterate enemies, DE BLOIS and DE MONTFORT, finally encountered each other near the town of Auray. The two armies approached. The French came on in such close order, says Freissart, that had one thrown an apple among the battalion, it must have lighted upon a helmet or a headpiece. They were covered with large and strong targets to parry the arrows of the english archers ; and advancing among the bowmen without having endured the usual damage, laid about them with their axes.

The archers being strong and active men, threw themselves among the French, and casting away their bows, wrenched the axes from the hands of their enemies and made a defence with singular fury. The leaders on both sides fought valiantly and inspired their men. Bertrand du Guesclín was made prisoner : sir Charles de Blois was slain on the field ; and, thus deprived of their principal leaders, the

French party were totally discomfited. This battle ended the hostilities of Bretagne which had now lasted so many years; but the faction of Edward III., who had so long supported the war, derived little advantage from its conclusion.

It had been decided by the peace of Breteigny, that the king of England should lay no claim to the superiority of Bretagne, in whatever manner the dispute between de Montfort and Charles de Blois might be terminated. The difficulty of finding the means to support the various expenses of the kingdom embarrassed Charles greatly, and drove him to a method of raising funds which could not be very popular. This was a general resumption of those gifts which the king and his predecessors had made, as well to the great vassals of the crown, as to inferior subjects.

In the course of this delicate task; Charles, by his wisdom and oratory, made such an impression upon his uncle Philip of Orleans, as to prevail on that high prince of the blood, to resign all that he possessed by the favor of his father, brothers, and nephew; saying, "that although he conceived he had a legitimate right to the donations of the crown, yet he resigned them all at the pleasure of the king his nephew, knowing that the service of the state rendered them necessary to him." This




The Pope would fain have satisfied these sturdy beggars with one hundred thousand florins, raised by a tax upon the inhabitants of Avignon ; but this did not suit du Guesclin's policy. "We came not," said he, "to pillage the poor, but to receive alms from the rich ; the full subsidy must be paid by the Pope and his cardinals, who have plenty of money." The Pope was under the necessity of complying with this unceremonious request, *liberally* adding to the subsidy *the pardon* about which the companions affected to be anxious. Bertrand du Guesclin, and such captains of the companions as he trusted with his secret purpose, had an expedition in view very different from that of an attack upon the Moors. There reigned at this time in Castile, one of the principal christian kingdoms in Spain, don Pedro, called, for his inhumanity and tyranny, the Cruel. He had murdered his beautiful and youthful bride, a near relation of the king of France, and had threatened the life of two or three brothers by the father's side, particularly one of them, Henry, count of Transtamara, who stood high in the esteem of the world, and was supposed to head the numerous party of Castilians whom Pedro's cruelties had rendered discontent.

Without embarrassing ourselves with the minute particulars of the expedition, it is suf-

ficient to say that du Guesclin and his army easily dispossessed Pedro of the crown which his vices had rendered very insecure, and compelled him to fly to Corunna. The prince of Wales having embarrassed his finances in the attempts to support Pedro, took an unfortunate mode of retrieving them. This was by a tax upon chimneys, called by the French *fouage*, which amounted to a franc upon each chimney. But his gascon subjects refused to submit to the imposition, alleging that they were never subject to such assessments while under the dominion of France. The barons, who caught eagerly at this new subject of offence, combined to free themselves from the dominion of England. As new grievances arose, the influence of patriotism increased in Gascony, and many pretexts for discontent were found, which would never have suggested themselves, had it not been for the influence of national feeling and national rivalry. A crisis therefore approached which threatened the dominion of England in France, and seemed likely to destroy all the influence which Edward III. and his son had acquired in that country by such an expenditure of blood and treasure.

Another person besides Bertrand du Gueselin watched the progress of the discontents which agitated the english provinces in France, intending to profit by them as occasion should present



itself. This was Charles of France, whose wisdom turned itself so much to the accumulation of riches that he acquired the title of the Wealthy, added to that of the Wise. Though strictly bound, by the treaty of Bretigny, to abstain from disputing the title of England to the province of Gascony, he determined to encourage the discontented gascon lords by assuming once more the title of lord paramount of that country; and by receiving an appeal to his parliament at Paris from those who claimed justice against the proceedings of the Black Prince.

As an excuse for assuming a power disowned by the peace of Bretigny, the french monarch pretended that Edward had not so absolutely renounced the title of king of France, as he was bound by that treaty to do. The fact however was that the opportunity was tempting, and Charles made use of it. When the french king saw the favourable moment for declaring himself, he sent a clerk and a knight to intimate to the prince of Wales the course he intended to pursue. These messengers found the prince at his court in Bordeaux, and kneeling before him, craved permission to deliver their message. The clerk then read a summons in the name of Charles, and directed to his nephew the prince of Wales, setting forth, that various prelates, barons, knights, etc., of Gascony, had complained to the king of France

of grievances sustained at the hands of the said prince of Wales, and therefore commanding him to appear in person in the city of Paris, and present himself before the king of France and his peers, to make answer to the petitions which complained of injury he had done.

The prince of Wales heard with no little astonishment a summons founded on the right of homage, which was expressly renounced by France at the treaty of Bretigny. His eyes sparkled with indignation, as looking fiercely upon the french messengers, he thus replied :

*“ Does our fair uncle desire to see us at Paris? Gladly will we go thither; but I assure you, sirs, it will be with basnet on our head and sixty thousand men in our company. ”*

Charles was prepared for the approaching contest, and had the advantage of the general assent of his subjects, who, fired with the hope of reviving their national glory and independence, pledged themselves to support with their lives and fortunes the quarrel with England, in which he was now about to engage.

The peace, which had lasted a considerable time, had also greatly diminished the forces at the command of Edward III. and his son the Black Prince. The Free Companies, which might be considered as something corresponding to a standing army of the period, had been,



owing to the want of money, dismissed from the pay of England, and in a great measure disbanded, or sent to find employment elsewhere.

The feudal troops and archery of England herself, whom it would have been difficult or impossible to detain in Gascony or France for any length of time, after the war was at an end, had returned to their native country, and it would require new efforts and new expenditure of treasure to recall them to the field, when their services were most necessary.

On the other hand, the whole kingdom of France was replenished with a rising generation, who had neither experienced the terrors of the former english victories, nor felt any thing but the desire of vengeance on their invaders. Charles himself might indeed remember the disasters of Cressy and Poitiers; but he had at the same time the satisfaction to know that Edward III. was now in an advanced age, embarrassed too by the discontent of his subjects, who were unwilling to submit to further assessments for the support of a foreign war, and by the increasing indisposition of the Black Prince, whose body could no longer execute the dictates of his dauntless mind. On the whole therefore the king of France was prepared with good hopes, once more to revive the bloody war which had so long wasted his

kingdom. Nor did the commencement of the struggle deceive his expectations.

The spirit of prince Edward flinched not under the infirmity of his body. He purposed to take the field in person, and advance to Paris at the head of a numerous army. His father had again influence enough with his parliament to obtain large subsidies, and levy a considerable army, which he despatched to the assistance of the prince, under the command of the earl of Cambridge, his brother, and the gallant John Hastings, earl of Pembroke, his brother-in-law. The Black Prince received also a powerful reinforcement from the Grand Companies, who, as their trade was war, were naturally determined in their choice of a side, by their reliance on the military qualities of the commander-in-chief, for skill, valour, generosity, and success; and certainly there was no man alive who could, in these respects, be termed equal to the prince of Wales. The schemes of Charles for undermining the english power in France, were so skilfully laid, that they took effect with considerable success. The province of Ponthieu was seized upon without much opposition; and the dukes of Anjou and Berry, brothers of the king, each at the head of a considerable army, were ready to invade the provinces of Gascony and Poitou.

The earl of Pembroke, with a force of two

hundred spears, took the field with the purpose of wasting the lands of those nobles who were hostile to England. The french lords, who held these garrisons, hearing of a jealousy between sir J. Chandos and the earl of Pembroke, resolved to gather their forces, and suddenly attack the latter. They combined an overpowering force, and made their attack near a village called Puyrenon, slaying a number of men-at-arms, and forcing the rest to take refuge in a churchyard, which surrounded a building formerly belonging to the Knights templars.

The french knights, commanded by the mareschal de Sancerre, said jestingly: "*They have got into a churchyard, it is but fair to give them time to chuse out and dig their graves; and after we have taken dinner, we will visit them and see how they suit them.*" But the mareschal commanded an instant attack; the assault was made with little success, they were repulsed by the english earl and his party; but they promised themselves better fortune the next day.

Early next morning they resumed the attack, and persevered until noon; they collected, among the neighbouring peasants, pickaxes and mattocks for the purpose of undermining the walls: this mode of attack being that which the English most dreaded. The earl of Pembroke, who began to repent his foolish jealousy, sent

a messenger on his best horse to convey to his friend lord Chandos the news of the jeopardy in which they stood ; conjuring him by a token to come to his deliverance. This token was a ring formerly given by Chandos to the young earl. The messenger escaped by a postern went off at full gallop, and reached Poitiers as Chandos was about to set down to dinner ; he resented the young earl's refusal to join him, and received his message coldly, observing that to deliver him was impossible, if he was in such a strait as was represented ; therefore they had better sit down to dinner, or the meat would be spoiled.

As Chandos was of a noble disposition, his resentment soon passed, and as the second course was served he raised his head, which till then he had held depressed on his bosom, and said to those around him : "Hear me, sirs, the earl of Pembroke is a noble person, and of high lineage ; son-in-law to our natural lord, the king of England. Foul shame were it to see him lost, if I may help it ; wherefore I will go to his assistance with the grace of God. Make ready, sirs, for Puyrenon !"

All rushed to arms, and lord Chandos, at the head of two hundred spears, made towards the village with such despatch that they had good hope of surprising the French. But the mareschal of Sancerre, who heard of the approach of

Chandos, drew off his troops, and secured such prisoners and booty as they had made at the first onset; comprising all the treasures and baggage of the earl of Pembroke. The earl and his knights retired from the temple-house with such horses as they had left: some mounted two on one horse, and others walking. When they met with John of Chandos, Pembroke and he embraced with tears; and the former greatly reflected upon himself that he had not moved sooner to the aid of his friend, when he might have reached Puyrenon time enough to have surprised Sancerre and his forces, who had now retired to a place of safety.

A desultory warfare continued to distract the provinces for some time, each party gaining and losing alternately, so that no decisive blow was struck. Edward III. had endeavoured to strengthen himself in France by despatching to Calais his son, commonly called John of Gaunt, with five hundred men-at-arms, and a gallant force of archers, with whom the count of Namur united himself as an auxiliary of England.

The king of France hearing that an army had entered Calais, commanded by a son of England, despatched the duke of Burgundy, one of his ablest brothers, to oppose him, with a force which, compared to that of the invaders, was more than seven to one. He imposed however strict commands upon this prince, that he

should on no account venture upon an engagement. Thus restrained, the duke of Burgundy took post in the vicinity of Calais, between St. Omers and Tournehan, while the duke of Lancaster on the other side occupied a very strong position fortified with hedges, ditches, and enclosures. The duke of Burgundy seeing that his character suffered by conforming to the orders of the king, requested permission either to give battle to the English, or to leave a position so humiliating.

Charles therefore commanded him to raise his camp, and come to Paris, which was done with so much caution, that the fires which consumed the tents the French had occupied were the first intimation the English received of their retreat. The duke of Lancaster determined to march into France, and advancing from Calais to the eastward, left severe marks of his displeasure upon the villages and cultivated country; especially where they had shown themselves unfriendly to England. A marauding party far less numerous than that under the duke of Lancaster, was commanded by sir Robert Knolles, a distinguished officer who, from a mean origin, had raised himself among the Grand Companies. He was now commissioned with an army of thirty thousand men to lay waste the kingdom of France on behalf of Edward III.

Knolles set out from Calais with his troops at the end of July ( A. D. 1370 ), and moved forward by Terouenne and Artois, burning and ravaging the country. He directed his march towards Paris without any hope to gain possession of that city; but from the desire to spread confusion and terror. Some districts happily escaped ravage through the medium of a good sum of money. He approached the city so near, that the fires which he raised in the neighbouring villages were plainly seen from the walls of Paris. A knight of the english army having made avow to strike his spear upon the gate of Paris, rushed forth from the ranks, and followed by his squire rode up to the barrier which he found open. There were several french knights standing near who wondered what this single man was about to attempt; but when they saw him satisfied with striking his lance upon the gate, and reining round his courser to return, they laughed and said, "*Go thy way for a brave knight, thou hast well accomplished thy vow.*" But the citizens of Paris and the suburbs had not the same sympathy as was entertained by those who were his brothers in chivalry; a butcher, who had seen him pass, waylaid him on his return, and struck him from his horse with a cleaver, and others coming up he was soon killed. Sir Robert Knolles encamped that night within sight of Paris, but this


adventurous expedition was concluded by an engagement betwixt him and the celebrated Bertrand du Guesclin.

The events of the war took an unfavourable turn for England, for in this year (1376) the gallant Black Prince was lost to his trade of arms; and the formidable Bertrand du Guesclin resumed a command in the service of Charles.

## TALE XXVI.

### DEATH OF EDWARD THE BLACK PRINCE (1376).

You have already been informed that Edward, the renowned Black Prince, had never enjoyed health since the expedition into Spain. It was in vain that his high spirit struggled against the decay of strength, and the increase of the debilitating disorder which appears to have been dropsical. Yet it was not the will of fate that this celebrated champion should depart from the scene without one final ray of victory shining upon his banner. The Gascons had yielded up the strong city of Limoges to the French, and admitted a french garrison. The surrender was made to the duke of Anjou; and Bertrand du Guesclin remained in the province of the Limousin, to protect this important acquisition.





The prince of Wales, though unable to mount a horse, hastily assembled an army of about twelve hundred lances and two thousand archers; he caused them to move forward upon Limoges, he himself being borne in an open litter at the head of his troops.

The garrison treated with scorn his summons to surrender, and the prince began immediately to undermine, and his engineers were soon able to throw down enough of the wall to admit his entering in battalion. The use of gunpowder in such mines being as yet unknown, the miners had orders to set fire to the props which supported the wall during the time they had carried on their operations: a portion of the wall about thirty feet in extent, fell into the ditch and filled it up, and the english division appointed for the storm rushed over the ruins. The gates were secured by another part of the english army. All escape was impossible; and the unfortunate inhabitants could only prostrate themselves in the streets and implore the compassion of the prince, who was determined to grant none. The slaughter was indiscriminate, and while the prince was borne into the town upon his litter, the guards who attended him slew men, women and children with their pole-axes and swords: four thousand persons thus perished.

The sight of four gallant Frenchmen defend-

ing themselves with much bravery first waked Edward's sympathy. Each was matched with a noble, and almost royal antagonist; for the four men-at-arms were engaged hand to hand with the duke of Lancaster and earl of Cambridge, brothers to the prince of Wales; with the earl of Pembroke, his brother-in-law, and another distinguished english warrior. The prince stopped his litter to witness this sharp conflict, and the french knights took this opportunity to surrender, and yield up their swords to him. They were dismissed with praises, and the heart of the conqueror was somewhat softened towards the vanquished by the chivalry which these warriors displayed. But his anger revived when the bishop of Limoges, first author of the revolt, was brought before him. In the heat of his wrath he commanded him to be beheaded; and it was with difficulty that he was finally induced to spare his life.

The retaking of Limoges was the last military feat of this renowned warrior; in the beginning of the next year he had the misfortune of losing his eldest son; and his own illness increasing, he was determined to try what his native air might do for his recovery: he left for ever the country in which he had gained so much glory, and upon which he had inflicted such terrible calamities.

This great prince died at Westminster on the

8<sup>th</sup> day of June, 1376; and his father, exhausted by age and various causes of vexation which overclouded his last years, did not long survive him. Edward III. died on the 21<sup>st</sup> of June 1377 in the fifty sixth year of his age.

The important post of constable of France becoming vacant, Charles V. considering du Guesclin the best general of his time, with the full assent of his nobles fixed upon him to fill that high office. But du Guesclin modestly stated his incapacity, and the difficulty which he, a poor knight, must expect in making himself obeyed by the great and powerful princes of France. The king however insisted upon the charge being accepted by the warrior who had shown himself most capable of bearing it. Du Guesclin then asked a condition that in case complaints should be brought against him, the king should deign to refuse credence to any which the informer was not ready to vouch in presence of the accused: this was readily granted. The new constable proposed to attack the english general sir Robert Knolles; yet having no more men than would enable him to watch the enemy, the faithful du Guesclin augmented his forces at his own expence, and for that purpose sold a number of rich jewels and other property. The time indeed was very favourable for an attack upon the army of Knolles, as there were dissensions

between him and his generals concerning what part of France would be most eligible for winter quarters.

While disunion was thus gaining ground among the English, du Guesclin obtained news of all their proceedings from a traiterous knight *sir John Menstreworth*, who privately corresponded with the French. The new constable had already advanced on sir Robert, then in quarters in Bretagne; but Knolles hearing of his approach, resolved secretly and suddenly to assemble the troops who had lately left his standard, and thus collect a body of forces with which he would be able to overpower du Guesclin. Lord Grandison, lord Fitzwalter, and the other discontented nobles, received therefore private instructions to repair to the camp of sir Robert Knolles, and they obeyed the summons. All this was communicated by sir John Menstreworth to the constable of France, who resolved by his active movements to prevent the execution of the plan of the english general, and to strike a blow at the forces while they were yet separated from the main body. With this purpose the constable met them at a place called Pont-Volant; half way before they could join with Knolles; and attacking them with nearly double their numbers, soon reduced them to extremity. The English defended themselves manfully, but

they could not long endure so unequal a combat, and many of the nobles were slain or made prisoners. The immediate consequence of the defeat was that sir Robert Knolles fell into such suspicion that he dared not trust himself within the bounds of Britain. But the real traitor Menstreworth becoming known, he was executed, and Knolles entirely restored to king Edward's favour.

The constable of France, after his success at Pont-Volant, seized many fortresses and carried on the war in Guienne and the neighbouring counties with tolerable success.

The duke of Lancaster now maintained at Bourdeaux a princely state, not inferior to that of the Black Prince himself, whom he resembled in courage and pride; though he was not equal to him in military science. He had married one of the daughters of the late don Pedro the Cruel, and by this unhappy step added to the difficulties arising from the french war the prospect of a quarrel with the king of Castile. The duke of Lancaster having, in 1371, returned to England with his royal bride, the earl of Pembroke was appointed to sail as commander-in-chief of the english forces to the principality of Aquitaine. He had a fleet of forty ships, having on board a considerable body of troops, with supplies of money and ammunition requisite to the support of the english cause in the

south of France. Thus provided he sailed for Rochelle ; but as he approached that place he was encountered by a powerful fleet (A. D. 1372, June 23), belonging to Henry of Transtamara, king of Castile, who espoused the cause of the French, the duke of Lancaster having, in right of his wife the princess Constance, laid claim to his kingdom.

The two navies of England and Spain encountered fiercely, and the combat endured until the evening of the second day, when the Spaniards obtained a complete victory. It is said that this superiority was owing, not only to the size of the spanish vessels, which were much larger than those of the English, but to the use of cannon on the part of the former, a weapon now for the first time made use of in naval war. The greatest part of the english fleet was burnt, taken, or sunk ; and the earl of Pembroke, son-in-law to Edward III., remained with many other knights prisoners of war to the Spaniards.

Shortly after this battle which was fought off Rochelle, the mayor of that place, one John Chaudron, influenced no doubt by the issue of the combat, contrived to surrender the important sea-port to the king of France. The English however had still a garrison, of which one Philip Mansel, an uneducated man, was the temporary governor. The mayor having

secured a party of burgesses in his plot, undertook to circumvent the commander of the citadel. He invited Mansel to a civic feast, where he exhibited a letter under the great seal of England (one of an old date), shrewdly suspecting that the governor could not read a word of it. "You perceive from this letter," said the mayor, boldly exhibiting it to the ignorant governor, "that the king has commanded the garrison of the castle, and that of the city, to be alternately reviewed by the commanders of each; wherefore I will make my musters to-morrow, if it please you to review them; and you, if you think proper, shall bring your force out of the castle, that I may inspect them in my turn in the manner here appointed."

The incautious governor believing this to be the tenor of the letter, was induced to bring his men out the castle towards the field where the rendezvous was to be held, and the mayor immediately interposed a strong body of armed citizens between the garrison and the castle, and compelled them to lay down their arms.

The strong town of Poitiers also augmented the triumphs of the gallant du Guesclin, and there now only remained to the English in Gascony the town of Thouars, then a place of considerable strength. The constable speedily

formed the siege of that place, and pressed it with such vigour that the English lords who were enclosed in it, consisting of the noblest and best of those partisans whom the numerous skirmishes and sieges had left, were inclined to come to terms. They engaged to surrender against the next Michaelmas, provided that the king of England, or one of his sons, should not, before that time, bring them succour in person. Edward, to whom this agreement was communicated, was highly incensed that a prince so unwarlike as Charles of France, who was seldom seen with armour on his back, or a lance in his hand, should give him so much more trouble than his martial predecessors, and he swore to take the field once more in person, with the purpose, not only of relieving Thouars, but of invading France.

The king put to sea accordingly with a considerable army, his destination being the seaport of Rochelle; but the wind and waves were adverse to the course he proposed; and after a desperate struggle, king Edward, to whom fortune had been so long favourable by land and sea, saw himself absolutely obliged to return to England without relieving the fortress.

Thouars was therefore left to its fate. The barons of Guienne who remained faithful to England offered to advance with twelve hun-



dred spears to attempt the relief of this important place; but it was too late: the knights enclosed within the town had plighted their faith to surrender at a certain time, and they therefore delivered it up to the French on the terms of the treaty.

Edward exerted himself in the hope of repairing the sinking affairs of the duke of Bretagne. He raised an army of fifty thousand men, which, under the command of the duke of Lancaster, landed at Calais, in the summer of 1372, for the purpose, on the duke's part, of emulating his father's deeds, and restoring the english affairs in France; but without success worthy of such great preparations.

The duke of Lancaster sallied forth from Calais at the head of his army. He had with him the earls of Warwick, Stafford, Suffolk, with lord Edward Spencer. They marched with precaution, being closely watched by three armies of the French, one commanded by the duke of Burgundy, one by the duke of Bourbon, and a third consisting chiefly of cavalry headed by the indefatigable du Guesclin, which followed in the rear of the English, cutting off all who strayed from their standard; and thus enclosed and observed, they could make little spoil upon the country, without exposing themselves to instant retaliation. However the duke

of Lancaster was determined to march to Bourdeaux to reestablish the english power in Gascony; and at length reached that city, but not without losing four-fifths of his army. Soon after this, Charles himself was taken ill with little hope of recovery; and an incident occurred which tended to increase the gloom of his death-bed. This was the news of the death of du Guesclin, high constable of France. He had been employed in the war in Bretagne and still more recently in that of Guienne; and had conducted himself with the same gallantry and success which he had all along exhibited.

The last act of his life was laying siege to the Château-Neuf de Randon. He had summoned the fortress, in terms which were boldly but respectfully answered by the commandant. On his refusal to surrender, du Guesclin pitched his tent before the place and pressed it by a close siege. He fell ill at this critical moment, and became speedily aware that he should soon close the scene of his existence. Willing to expend his last spark of life in the service of his country, du Guesclin sent the commander of Château-Neuf de Randon a positive summons to surrender the place instantly if he desired to profit by his intercessions with the king of France in his favour. The commandant moved by the resolute and severe tone in which this message was delivered, declared, he would

deliver the keys of his fortress to the constable of France, but to no leader of inferior degree. He was conducted therefore to the tent of du Guesclin; but he was no longer alive; and the commandant was compelled to lay the emblems of submission at the feet of a lifeless corpse.

Charles V. still endeavoured to execute the great purpose of his ambition, which was the reunion of France into one kingdom. This desirable object had met with a great obstacle in the king of Navarre, Charles the Bad. This prince pretended to have claims upon the crown of France; and to dispossess him of these, was the object of Charles's policy. He received therefore against Charles of Navarre an accusation of high treason, as having administered poison to the royal person of his liege lord. The noxious draught was said to have been so potent, that the king of France lost his hair and his nails, and retained to the end of his life the marks of having taken poison. Yet the affair was never judicially brought forward, until the expulsion of the English from so many places of importance in France had rendered any rebellion of Charles of Navarre of less consequence. The wicked prince was, by a sentence of the Estates, deprived of such dominions as he still held in France. He continued his course of vicious habits and political intrigues

till he was full sixty years old : at which age his profligate habits had so far reduced his constitution that he was ordered by his physicians to swathe himself in a vestment steeped in spirit of wine, and to procure artificial warmth by means of a warm bed, heated by a chaffoir of hot coals. Through want of caution a coal communicated fire to his sheet and from that to his person swathed as it was in matter highly inflammable. Before he could be rescued, he was burnt to the bowels, yet survived in great agony during fifteen days. Such was the wretched end of the wicked king of Navarre.

Charles of France was now approaching his end, dying it, is said, a victim to the poison administered by the king of Navarre so long before; and his death was felt by the country with deeper regret than that of a sovereign is often regarded. Quiet, sedate, temperate in his passions, viewing clearly, weighing deliberately, and wisely selecting the objects of his policy, Charles never rashly changed, and rarely ultimately abandoned them. Though born in warlike times, he was himself no warrior, and this was a fortunate circumstance, since he was never liable to be driven forward by the vehement desire of personal distinction which hurried his predecessors, Philip of Valois and John, into the fatal fields of Cressy and Poitiers.

## TALE XXVII.

CHARLES VI. (1380).

THE successor of Charles the Wise was also named Charles, being the sixth king so called; he was at this time only twelve years old; and it was necessary to appoint a regent. The duke of Anjou, the eldest brother of the deceased monarch, was supposed to be possessed of considerable talents, he was a mortal enemy to the English, and a principal actor, during the late reign, in making war upon them in the south of France. This prince obtained the regency by appointment of the Estates, but the education and personal care of the king was entrusted to the duke of Burgundy, the king's uncle by the father's side, and the duke of Bourbon, the same relation by the mother's.

Unhappily for France the private interest of the regent, duke of Anjou was entirely different from that of the kingdom at large. The first effort of the new government, divided as it was by the various claims of the princes of the blood, was to procure a settlement amongst them; and for some time their desire of a relaxation of taxes seemed to intimate a wish to alleviate the heavy burdens of the people.

This flattering prospect soon disappeared through the disunion of the princes. We have already said that the regent duke of Anjou seized upon the treasures of his brother the deceased king; he employed them, as I will hereafter shew you, in an attempt on Naples and Sicily; a project totally useless to himself, and dangerous to France, on which it entailed a long course of disasters.

There was at this time a schism in the roman catholic Church; two Popes had been chosen who were acknowledged in opposition to each other by different kingdoms of the christian world. The one, who assumed the name of Urban, resided at Rome; the other, under the title of pope Clement, held his seat of Church government at Avignon, in the south of France. Each had his separate college of cardinals, and affected the power and authority of the full papal sway.

The duke of Anjou had no great difficulty in prevailing upon Clement to declare in favour of his title to the crown of Naples and Sicily. He did so alleging that the deceased Joan had put all her dominions and seigniories at the disposal of the Church. While Anjou was pursuing his own ends, the English might have made considerable efforts for the recovery of the dominions which they had lost in France. Of these dominions, Calais, Bourdeaux, and

Bayonne, were the chief remains of Edward the Third's conquests which his successor retained. They were important towns, and required large garrisons. Cherbourg and Brest were also in the hands of the English (A. D. 1378).

A large army was therefore sent into France by the way of Calais, under the command of the earl of Buckingham, afterwards known as the good duke Humphrey of Gloucester, uncle to Richard II. This force did little more than waste the neighbourhood, after the fashion of the latter english invaders; and when they advanced towards Bretagne, the death of Charles V. had inspired their ally, John de Montfort, with the hopes of making a separate peace with France, without embarrassing himself about his allies of England. With this view, de Montfort on the one hand invited the English to lay siege to Nantes, the capital town of Bretagne, assuring them that he would support them with a sufficient army; while, on the other, he negotiated for a separate peace with the authorities who had succeeded to the government of France; and being received by the French into their alliance, he desired his late allies the English to evacuate Bretagne, which they had entered at his request.

Both the kingdoms indeed were at this time critically situated, which obliged them to

submit rather to the course of events than attempt to direct them. Charles VI. of France, and Richard II. of England, were both minors. Each was under the direction of uncles, or near relations who quarrelled among themselves, pursued their own interests with little regard to those of their sovereign, and entirely neglected those duties they had solemnly bound themselves to discharge.

Abroad, both kingdoms were embarrassed with factious neighbours — the Flemings, for example, whose numerous and continual intestine divisions formed a temptation to the French and English to take part in their dissensions. Philip d'Artevelle, son of a celebrated demagogue in Flanders, was chosen leader of a factious party at Ghent, who had taken arms against the earl of Flanders in consequence of some proposed alterations in the channel of the river Lys. The revolt became an insurrection, and thus were the earl of Flanders and the citizens of his towns in open arms against each other. The French, espousing the cause of the earl, dispatched forces to his assistance, and the English sent to Calais an army to assist d'Artevelle and the insurgent citizens.

The war was conducted with great vigour on the part of the French; yet Philip d'Artevelle shewed both dexterity and courage on this trying occasion. From Ghent and the con-



federate towns, he collected a numerous army. Those who fought under him were arrayed in cassocks of different colours to shew the towns they belonged to : they were chiefly armed with pikes , and fought on foot , forming one battalion.

After some skirmishes, the two armies encountered each other in a pitched battle near the town of Rosebecque (A. D. 1381). The Flemings for a time made a most desperate and gallant defence ; but as they were attacked by the flower of the french chivalry, headed by the princes of the blood, and by the king in person, they were at length broken by the charge of the horses and lances. As the knights and men-at-arms gave no quarter, twenty five thousand men were left slain upon the field.

Philip d'Artevelle fell bravely fighting ; and the victory was so well employed , that most of the towns submitted peaceably to the dominion of France, though Ghent still held out.

From the bloody field of Rosebecque in which the power of the insurgent Flemings had been broken, the young king of France hurried back to his own capital of Paris, which had been for a considerable time in mutiny against him. The Parisians had rendered their city in some degree tenable by building walls, digging trenches , drawing barricades across the streets , and thus impeding the entrance

of the military ; and they themselves had assumed the title of *mailloins* or malleters, from the mallets with which they were generally armed. In order to over-awe the young king, they displayed before him this force amounting to thirty thousand men ; but instead of being daunted, Charles, despising their numbers, entered his capital by force of arms, and seized two or three hundred leaders of the malleters, several of whom were put to death. The gates of the city were also pulled down, the citizens disarmed, and the insurrection for that time was completely subdued.

England, though weakened by external losses and internal mutiny, was still too powerful not to be appealed to during these times of confusion. When the Flemings were in insurrection, the English, though they ridiculed the idea of giving them pecuniary assistance which d'Artevelle required, were yet disposed to send troops to the continent to avail themselves of the general confusion. But when Flanders fell into the hands of the French, the english government blamed their own indecision, and began to censure each other for not having sent timely succour to d'Artevelle. " Had these poor Flemings, " they said, " who fought so well in their own rude manner, been joined but by two thousand english spears, and six thousand archers, not a Frenchman would have

escaped death or captivity. But though the french king has conquered Flanders, we will reconquer it for Richard of England." This induced many distinguished men, such as sir Hugh Calverly and others, to join the expedition under the bishop of Norwich, although its chance of success was greatly diminished by the defeat of Rosebeque.

The martial prelate took the sea accordingly, and landed at Calais the 23<sup>d</sup> day of april, 1383. When the English arrived at this place, the bishop was in great haste to march against the earl of Flanders. He defeated an army of thirty thousand French and Flemings in the french interest, and made himself master of Gravelines and Dunkirk, Burburgh and several other towns; and besieged Ypres which was valiantly defended. The besiegers sent to the people of Ghent who still remained in insurrection against the earl of Flanders, and as they joyfully obeyed the summons, and came in large numbers, with great hope of success, the siege was closely pressed. The king of France therefore assembled an army of twenty thousand men-at-arms, and more than threescore thousand of other troops for the purpose of relieving Ypres.

This news alarmed the bishop, whose force was too weak to abide the arrival of such an army: the siege was raised in haste and disorder,

the besiegers took different routes to secure themselves; some marching towards Burburgh, under sir Hugh Calverley and sir Thomas Trivet; and the rest of the army, under the personal command of the bishop, retreating towards Gravelines. The party under Calverley halted for some time at the town of Bergues. The french host approached them just after they had occupied that place. Sir Hugh Calverley was at first inclined to fight the French at Bergues, disdaining all difference of numbers; but on better reflexions, he withdrew to the town of Burburgh, which was stronger, though unfortunately the houses were most of them thatched, and thus liable to be set on fire.

Here the English defended themselves valiantly for some time, until the king of France ordered a great number of faggots for filling the ditches of the place, determined to carry it by storm. A small piece of silver, called a blank, was paid to each peasant who should bring a faggot, and on these terms the ditches were soon filled. In this extremity, the English leaders were glad to compound for permission to evacuate the place safely, and return to Calais.

The duke of Bretagne, who had borne arms in the camp of the king of France, now ventured to make his appearance in the character of negociator for peace between France and Eng-

land, a character somewhat singular for one who, like John de Montfort, had been unfaithful to both kingdoms. Neither however were disposed to submit to moderate terms; and while the English refused to hold in vassalage of France, the few places which they still retained in that kingdom, the French were equally unwilling that a foreign nation should enjoy, even the slightest independant possession on their soil.

In the mean time France continued to suffer from the free companies or bands of armed men, of whom I have often told you. They owned no king or country, but assembled in towns or castles, where they lived by force, and at the expense of the neighbourhood. I think however you will better understand the character of this sort of persons, by a short account of the history and death of two of their number.

The province of Auvergne was particularly haunted by these banditti, because it abounds with passes, rocks, hills, and strong-holds, of which they knew admirably how to take advantage in war. Several of the most renowned leaders had settled themselves there, profiting by all opportunities of rapine, and means of concealment. Two of these freebooters were distinguished above the others; their names (at least the epithets by which they were distinguished in the wars) were AMARGAT MARCELL,

and GEOFFREY TÊTE-NOIRE. They both professed to espouse the english cause, but it may be supposed that they only chose it, because it afforded the most unlimited privilege of plunder.

Geoffrey Tête-Noire obtained, by bribing a domestic, the possession, for himself and company, of the strong castle of Ventadour, belonging to an aged earl of that name, a quiet peaceful man, whom the robbers dismissed without injury: such indeed had been the bargain of the treacherous squire, who surrendered the place. Geoffrey here prosecuted his profession with great success. He was a hardy man, who knew neither fear nor pity, and would put to death a knight or a squire, as soon as a peasant; and he was so much dreaded by his men that none dared displease him. This chieftain assembled a band of four hundred men, to whom he paid wages monthly with the utmost regularity. He protected the country around Ventadour, so that no one dared make incursions upon the territory. The castle was fully victualled for a siege, had it been to last seven years. Nay occasionally, to show his independance, Tête-Noire chose to make war on the English as well as the French, and this course of life he led many years, more dreaded than any lawful authority in the country where he lived.

But when the french interest began to recover itself in these districts, the nobles and knights united for the purpose of besieging the forts and castles of which these robbers had possession, and, delivering the country from these lawless companions.

Accordingly sir William Lignac, and sir John Bon-Lance, and many others, knights of Auvergne and of the district of Limosin, formed the siege of Ventadour for the safety of which Tête-Noire was no way distressed, having plenty of ammunition and provisions. But one day as he was heading his men in a sally, he received a crossbow-shot in the face. The wound proved mortal, and soon carried off this redoubted bandit. The immense property he had acquired was divided among the band, and one of them named Allan Roux took the command; but the castle was soon taken, and most of them put to the sword.

The history of Amergot Marcell, whom we have mentioned as a brother in the trade of war, and an occasional partner of Tête-Noire, gives us a similar picture of their life. This worthy, had, in like manner, acquired the strong castle of Aloys in Auvergne; whence he made many successful inroads upon the country, which produced him a revenue of twenty thousand florins. But about the time of Tête-Noire's death, the earl of Armagnac

and several french lords were commissioned to get these robbers out of the country, by bribery, if it should be necessary, since force was a dangerous and doubtful remedy. Marcell was, after a time, persuaded that he had better accept the offer made him, renounce his unlawful and violent proceedings; and by means of the treasure he had acquired live in future a peaceful life. In these sentiments he delivered up to the earl of Armagnac the castle of Aloys, situated in the very heart of Auvergne. He however soon returned to his former life, and was at length taken and executed at Paris.

To return to our history, the duke of Lancaster, in the mean time, had by his extensive influence obtained the object of his ambition, and had sailed with twenty thousand english troops to make good his claim to the kingdom of Castile, lately possessed by his father-in-law, Pedro the Cruel. The heat of the climate, and the intemperate use of the wines and fruits of the country, soon spread contagious diseases among them.

The french king now thought that England might be exhausted by the mutinies of the peasants, and the two expeditions under the bishop of Norwich and John of Gaunt, and that he could, with hopes of success, carry war into that country. Preparations for invasion were therefore made, with unnecessary




splendour. Upwards of seven hundred ships were prepared to transport the army which was collected for this enterprise, the frame of a wooden town was put on board, which was designed to be taken to pieces and carried from place to place, for the king's lodging, should he accompany the expedition. However the severe equinoctial storms of 1386 destroyed this great fleet of transports, which had rendezvoused in the harbour of Sluys.

At this moment the affairs of Bretagne began to assume peculiar interest. John de Montfort, duke de Bretagne, a man of bravery and talent, had a difficult part to play between France and England. The chief opponent to his claim on the dukedom of Bretagne was Oliver de Clisson, then constable of France. The elder son of Charles de Blois had married a daughter of Clisson, and this young lord displayed the arms of Bretagne on his banners, and in his scutcheon; thus asserting his claim to the duchy, in maintaining which his father had been slain at Aurai. The duke was so displeased with this claim that he resolved to be avenged. For this purpose he issued an invitation to all the nobility and lords of Bretagne, and especially to the constable of France, to meet him at a solemn entertainment. Having feasted them, the duke conducted them to a castle by the sea shore, as if to procure their opinion of the

structure which he was building. The constable entered the tower at the duke's request, and was immediately loaded with irons. His brother-in-law, the lord Delaval, who saw the gate of the tower shut suddenly, and observed by the duke's change of countenance that something remarkable had occurred, threw himself upon his knees, and demanded mercy for the constable. "Are you willing to share his fate?" answered the duke. "I am," answered Delaval, in more anxiety for his friend than for himself. "Then," said the duke drawing his dagger, "you must be content to lose one of your eyes, for Clisson has but one" (he had lost the other, it must be observed, at the battle of Aurai). After a moment however the duke abstained from the violence he threatened, and caused Delaval to be apprehended, saying that he should have neither worse, nor better treatment than his friend. He was led accordingly to a prison chamber, and loaded with three pairs of irons. Finally the duke accepted a ransom, amounting to the large sum of one hundred thousand franks, with three castles, and the town of Guyon.

The constable's arrest deprived the king of France of that great officer, upon whose wisdom he chiefly relied for the successful execution of his project against England; but, as you have already heard, the tempestuous



weather put an end to that expedition. The duke contrived to reconcile himself with the king of France, by returning the sum he had extorted as the ransom of Clisson, and giving up the castles which he had received from him.

## TALE XXVIII.

### MADNESS OF CHARLES VI.

The next year (A. D. 1387) was well advanced when the french king took upon himself the government of his kingdom. He assembled a council at Rheims, where he called his uncles, the dukes of Berri, Burgundy, and Bourbon, and expressing his grateful thanks for their services, declared himself determined to govern his kingdom in future by the assistance of a council of state, the members of which were to be selected by himself.

The nation was not sorry to see that the duke of Bourbon was only included in the list of privy counsellors. The dukes of Berri, and Burgundy however were highly offended at being excluded from power. The young king appeared to possess the most promising dispositions, but he had contracted an extravagant passion for hunting, and other youthful exer-

cises, together with a love of public show and festivities.

These failings, added to untoward circumstances, and to a melancholy alteration in the state of his health, rendered Charles VI. one of the most unfortunate princes that ever sat upon the throne of France. In the commencement of his reign he was attentive to business, careful to render justice to those who presented petitions to him; liberal in the remission of taxes, and so amiable in his general deportment, that he acquired the surname of Charles the Well-Beloved. The principal officer, whom he valued as much for his civil as for his warlike qualities, was the breton lord Oliver of Clisson. The king's uncles, seeing a person whom they regarded as an upstart, rise into a confidence with their royal nephew, from which they were excluded, entertained a deep hatred for Clisson, and these princes are supposed to have aided the duke of Bretagne in escaping, so easily as he did, from the consequences of his treacherous attack upon the constable's person at the castle of Ermyne; and to have been concerned in a foul attempt to assassinate him, which took place shortly afterwards. The agent in this vile deed was Peter Craon, formerly remarkable as having been the confident of Louis of Anjou, to whom he had proved faithless. He was a bold and

intriguing person, and had acquired so much intimacy with the duke of Touraine, afterwards Orleans (the king's brother), that he had an opportunity of abusing it, which it was not in his nature to resist. The king, who understood that Craon had been disturbing the peace of his court, by sowing discord between the duke and duchess of Orleans, intimated his displeasure by banishing him from Paris. He retired into Bretagne, of which duchy he was a native, full of indignation against the constable, and made a desperate attempt to assassinate him. Though banished from Paris, Peter had still a house there, which he caused to be privately supplied with armour for forty men. He introduced carefully a like number of the most desperate ruffians, and at last joined them himself.

One evening there was a great entertainment at court, upon which Craon kept a close watch in order to be apprised of the motions of his victim. The knights jousted in presence of the king and queen; supper was served; dancing ensued; at length all departed to their homes. As constable of France Clisson departed last of all. He enquired if he should attend upon the duke of Orleans any longer, and was dismissed by that prince, who had no further occasion for his service. The constable was then joined by his retinue, with his horses; and with eight persons and two

torches pursued his way through what was then called the street of Ste. Catherine. Here Craon waited with his band of assassins to execute his purpose. They attacked the unsuspecting passenger, and struck out the torches. The constable naturally took this sudden assault to be youthful frolic of the duke of Orleans, from whom he had just parted, and said, "Ah! sir, this is a bad jest; but I pardon your youth and love of frolic." At this Peter Craon drew his sword and cried, "Down with the constable! I am Peter of Craon whom thou hast often injured, I will now have amends!" The ruffians then struck at the constable and his party. The good knight defended himself manfully with a sword scarcely two feet in length, the only weapon which he had, and warded off many blows; at length he was beaten down by a severe stroke on the head, and fell against a baker's door which was forced open by his weight, and the baker, who was up early to attend to his oven, drew the wounded man within his house. The assailants were the readier to make their escape, because they concluded that their enterprise was fully executed. The city was speedily roused, and the king himself hastened to the spot with a cloak around him and slippers on his feet. He ordered an instant pursuit after the assassins, but Peter escaped by the gate of the city which had been dismantled by Oliver

of Clisson himself, when the king, returning from the campaign of Rosebecque, punished the city of Paris. The assassin afterwards retired into Bretagne; and the king prepared to march into that country, as well to revenge himself of Peter Craon, who had been guilty of such an outrage, as to chastise the duke of Bretagne his protector.

Clisson, though much hurt, recovered from his wounds. The intended murderer met with a sorry reception from John de Montfort; not because he had *attempted* the deed, but because he had not *executed* it. "Ah! sir Peter of Craon," said the duke, "you are unhappy, that you could not slay your enemy when he was under your sword!" "Sir," answered Craon, "I think all the devils had conjured him out of my hands! I am sure more than sixty blows were struck at him with swords and javelins; he was felled from his horse, and had he not tumbled in at a half open door, he had been a dead man." The duke finally agreed to conceal Craon, as he had promised.

The king vowed to be revenged for the foul injury he had sustained in the person of his constable; though the dukes of Berri, and Burgundy, advised him to take no notice of it. He marched to the city of Mans with the intention of entering Bretagne, having with him his uncles, and his brother Orleans at the

head of a gallant army. The march of the king was interrupted by a very singular circumstance. For some days ere he set out from Mans on his expedition he had shewn evident symptoms of occasional insanity. No persuasion however could induce him to relinquish the expedition, and he set off with his army, in the manner already mentioned.

He rode like a man-at arms, fully sheathed in mail, except his head, and having two pages before him bearing his helmet and lance. The armour being covered with black velvet, heated him excessively. As he thus rode forward under a burning sun, he himself being in a deep reflexion, a tall figure dressed in rags, and of hideous appearance, rushed out of a thicket, and, seizing the king's bridle, exclaimed, " King, whither goest thou? Thou art betrayed! " The king's servants, who paid no attention to his words, suffered him to escape into a thicket, after having struck several blows at him. In the mean time the army emerged from the forest, and entered a broad plain, where the sun, at the height of noon, was still more oppressive than before. Here the pages with the spear and helmet rode close behind the king; and his uncles; the dukes of Berri and Burgundy, with other nobles, kept at a little distance, to be free of the dust which arose from so many horses.



The page that bore the spear, falling asleep, or through negligence, allowed the lance to drop upon the casque of him who bore the king's helmet; which accident occasioned a great noise. The king, weakened in mind by his fever, exhausted by the heat of the sun, and by the weight of his armour, and above all, strongly impressed by the appearance and words of what seemed to be a phantom, had sunk into a sort of lethargy. In this situation, the flash of the spear, and the glittering of the armour around awakened him out of his dreaming melancholy into a fit of raving madness. He drew his sword, and rushing like a madman on the page who had caused the noise, struck him a mortal blow, and continued hewing at all around him with so little distinction, that it became obvious he was quite deranged.

There was no other remedy but to seize upon him by main force, disarm, and bind him, and in this unhappy condition to convey him back to Mans, bound with cords, and exhausted by his frantic efforts; speechless, motionless, and almost lifeless. This was a melancholy conclusion of the expedition to Bretagne; all thoughts of prosecuting which were abandoned. The king's fury was succeeded by the most powerless dejection; he neither moved, looked, nor spoke; and a low pulse, and faint

degree of warmth alone indicated the remains of life. He partially recovered after some weeks' illness; but both mind and body had received such a shock as was never afterwards repaired.

After a temporary convalescence, his insanity was brought on with increased violence by an accident as extraordinary as that by which his disease had originally been manifested. Charles was so far recovered as to take an interest in the festivities of his court, though not in the affairs of state (A. D. 1392). There was one night a masque of particular splendour, in which the king himself acted a part. Six persons of the highest rank, the king being at the head of them, appeared disguised as Sylvans or Satyrs. Their dress consisted of canvass coats, pitched over, to which wool or flax was attached in loose flakes. They were linked together with chains, and excited general curiosity. The duke of Orleans approached them with a torch, in order to discover who the masquers were. Unhappily, their inflammable dress took fire, and the whole group were instantly in a blaze. Linked as they were together, there was little chance of escape; yet the general cry of the perishing group was to save the king; even while they were in the agonies of a death so painful. The duchess of Berri, who was speaking with his majesty at the time the accident occurred, had the presence of mind and reso-

lution to wrap the unhappy monarch in her mantle, and thus saved him. One of the unfortunate masquers plunged into a cistern of water which chanced to be near. The remaining four were so dreadfully burnt, that they died in great agony.

The natural consequence of so horrible an accident, was the return of the king's malady in its fullest force, and he never afterwards recovered the perfect use of his reason.

It now became absolutely necessary to provide a regent; and a quarrel arose in the royal family who should be preferred to that important office. The duke of Orleans, and the duke of Burgundy, both laid claims to this eminent trust. The duke of Orleans, being the king's brother and heir, was legally entitled to it, and the king during his intervals of reason gave his opinion to this effect; but though possessing great personal qualifications, Orleans was certainly not a fit person to take upon himself such a high responsibility as the regency; being much addicted to pleasure, and only twenty years of age.

The dukes of Berri and Burgundy, uncles of the king, might entertain the next pretensions to this high office. Of these, the duke of Berri was oldest, but he was a man of weak mind, and unpopular from his mal-administration of the county of Languedoc. The duke of

Burgundy was therefore raised to the regency, but not without a struggle between him and his nephew Orleans; in the course of which a fatal quarrel took its rise between the rival branches of Orleans, and Burgundy, which long distracted France, and occasioned many crimes and the spilling of much blood.

The first step of this regent was to shew, towards the constable Oliver de Clisson, the resentment which he had long nourished against him. He took an opportunity to upbraid him with having too long interfered with the affairs of the kingdom, and with having unjustly amassed much wealth; therefore he desired of him to take himself off, if he valued the sight of his remaining eye. Clisson, apprehending worse treatment, retired from Paris, and took refuge upon his own territories in Bretagne.

The duke of Burgundy soon after caused Clisson to be summoned before the parliament of Paris, on the charge that he possessed too much wealth to have been honestly acquired. As the constable did not think proper to appear before an assembly principally composed of his enemies, he was therefore exiled from France, and condemned to pay a fine of one hundred thousand marks of silver, and his office was conferred upon Philip of Artois, count of Eu.

Meantime Clisson made a strong party in his native country of Bretagne, where he had great

power, as his daughter had married the count of Penthievre, heir to the claims of Charles de Blois on that duchy.

A cruel war commenced between Clisson and the duke of Bretagne, who, though sovereign of the country, found very few disposed to take his part in this matter; so that Clisson twice plundered him of all his plate, and the duke was fain to make peace with him upon terms which Clisson considered advantageous. The duke of Bretagne having desired an interview with Clisson, and knowing well that since the treacherous arrest at Ermyne castle, his invitation was not likely to be trusted without a pledge, sent one of his sons to be retained as a security of good faith. Clisson however sent back the hostage, and, in the fullest confidence of the duke's honour, kept the appointment without any security. John de Montfort, highly sensible of this confidence, conceived a warm friendship for the constable, from which neither of them afterwards swerved. The duke of Bretagne showed his esteem for Clisson by appointing him, on his death-bed, guardian to his children; a trust which he faithfully executed, in spite of the temptations by which he was surrounded. He was once reclining on his bed when his daughter, the countess de Penthievre, entered the apartment and proposed to her father a plan of putting

the young de Montforts to death, and placing his grand-children in the right to the duchy. On hearing her proposal, the old knight raised himself in bed, and threw at her head the truncheon which he happened to have in his hand. Flying from this well-merited paternal admonition, the countess fell down stairs and dislocated her leg, by which accident she became lame for life.

Clisson died shortly after, honoured, beloved and lamented, after having gone through so many dangers in the public service, and from private envy and hatred.

The government of the duke of Burgundy was a wise, for it was a frugal one. In his lucid intervals, the king was amused with hunting-matches and other pastimes to divert his thoughts from the government of his kingdom, and it is said that playing-cards were invented for his amusement.

By observing great economy, the duke of Burgundy pacified the people and reduced the taxes. He was regularly guided by the advice of parliament which was convened every year. During his administration, the public peace was not disturbed by the destructive wars with England, by which France had been so long ravaged. This was indeed rather owing to the weakness of England, than to the prudence of the regent.



The reign of Richard II. of England had been marked by public discord, popular tumult, and almost every event which can render a country incapable of foreign war. The internal transactions of France during this reign were merely convulsions, occasioned by the license of the soldiers, and at times the reviving disputes between the french and english vassals; there existed also connexions with foreign powers, of which it is necessary to say something.

The intercourse with the scottish nation is worthy of some notice. We have already observed that, love to the French, hatred to the English, and the distribution of considerable sums of money, had induced the Scots to attempt an invasion of England, in order to create a diversion in favour of Calais, which Edward III. was then besieging. In this enterprise the Scots had the misfortune to lose a fine army, and to leave their king David II., prisoner in England.

In the battle of Poitiers a body of scottish gentry, the flower of their kingdom, commanded by the celebrated earl Douglas, shared the disasters of that bloody day. The French had always expressed themselves grateful for the assistance which the Scots had intended to give them, and willing to return the obligation when circumstances should put it in their

power. The French council thought, that by assisting them with cavalry, they might place them upon a footing with the English. They therefore sent the necessary supplies to Scotland, under the admiral of France, John of Vienne. But the lightness, activity, and petulance of the French were little adapted to the slow and cautious habits of the Scotch. Instead of rushing on with precipitate rashness to a general action, as the French wished, the scottish warriors, taught by experience, suffered the english army to enter their eastern frontier, and to do such damage as they could; while the Scots poured a numerous army upon the western frontier of England, laying all waste, and doing more mischief than their own eastern provinces could possibly receive from the southern foe. In this species of war the French saw they could acquire neither fame nor profit; and at length lost their patience; execrating the poor, rude; and pitiful country of Scotland, on account of which they had suffered so much trouble.

What was worse, they found great trouble in obtaining permission to return to France. The Scots insisted on a large sum to indemnify them for the expense and damage caused by their allies, and de Vienne himself was obliged to remain a hostage in Edinburgh, until this sum was paid by the french govern-



ment. The french army was soon employed in another sort of warfare. The Turks were daily making progress both in the Grecian empire, and in the kingdom of Hungary. Sigismond was so apprehensive of the danger incurred from these intruders, under the command of the celebrated Bajazet, who was now threatening the frontiers of Hungary; that he endeavoured by the most humble applications at the court of France to obtain the assistance of a body of volunteers who would *merit Paradise* (as he said) by combating against them. Sigismond also requested assistance of other Christian european courts.

John, earl of Nevers, son of the duke of Burgundy, regent of France, was desirous to be of this expedition, and lord Guy of Tremouille wished to accompany him. The regent yielded a reluctant consent. The news being generally spread, a great impression was made upon all the true sons of chivalry, who flattered themselves with conquering the East and surpassing all other crusades.

The army which assembled on this occasion (A. D. 1395), amounted to more than one hundred thousand men; and Sigismond proudly exclaimed — “ Why should we fear the Turks? if the heavens themselves should fall, we are numerous enough to uphold them with our lances. ”

The king of Hungary levied what forces he could, and moved forward with his allies, so that they might the sooner come to deeds of arms. They crossed the Danube, and formed the siege of Nicopolis, which was garrisoned by the Turks. Bajazet, in the mean time, had raised a very large army, with which he approached the camp of the besiegers. A party of christians reconnoitring, brought news that the Turks were advancing, but gave no exact account of their numbers or disposition. The christians instantly took arms. The French claimed the honor of making the onset; and they were drawn up in front of the centre of that part of Bajazet's force, which was open and uncovered.

The king of Hungary's marshal then advised the strangers to halt, and keep their ground, until a reconnoitring party which Sigismond had sent out, should bring more exact intelligence than they had yet received, concerning the enemy's force. The Hungarian had scarcely turned his horse ere Philip of Artois, constable of France, commanded his banner to advance, in defiance of the advice received. The lord of Coney, a knight of great fame, considered this presumptuous; and, looking to the admiral of France John de Vienne, demanded what was to be done. "Sir," answered the veteran, "where reason cannot be heard, pride must

reign ; since the constable will needs advance, we must follow and support him. " They rushed forward therefore on what appeared to be the main body of the turkish army, which retired before them, according to their sultan's previous commands. In the mean time as the French advanced upon the centre, two strong wings, on either flank of the turkish army, which had been hitherto concealed, threw themselves in the rear, and cut the french chivalry off from the main body of the Hungarians. This manœuvre was executed with the rapidity of lightning. The Hungarians seeing many of the French horses return without riders, concluded that their van-guard was defeated, fell into great disorder, and fled. The Turks, whose armies consisted chiefly of cavalry, made great havoc in the pursuit. The king of Hungary, with the grand master of the Hospitallers, escaped with difficulty ; and the slaughter and carnage among the Hungarians and their auxiliaries was very great.

Bajazet took possession of the king of Hungary's tent, and with the usual caprice of a barbarian, evinced at first a desire to be civil to and familiar with such nobles as were brought prisoners to his presence ; but when he came to view the field of battle, and saw the loss of his best and bravest Turks, his tiger propensities began to shew themselves. He

caused to be selected some of the knights, who were of the highest rank, and likely to pay the best ransom; the rest were then stript to their shirts, and brought before him to be put to the sword. Bajazet looked upon his prisoners for a few moments as a wild beast beholds his prey, and then made a sign to his soldiers, in obedience to which they commenced the work of destruction, and the unfortunate prisoners were hewn to pieces without compunction.

The sultan then caused to be brought before him, the earl of Nevers, and asked him, which of three knights he would wish to despatch to Paris with the information of his captivity. The earl fixed upon Jacques of Helley, who had been formerly prisoner to the Saracens, and whose knowledge of their language and manners had been of great service to his countrymen; the two other knights were put to death. The arrival of sir Jacques at Paris with such dismal tidings, threw almost the whole kingdom into mourning. The regent duke of Burgundy was the only person who experienced any comfort in the general distress; he contrived to extort from the french people a much larger sum for his son's ransom, than was actually paid to Bajazet.

Thus closed the fourteenth century upon the kingdom of France, leaving it a prey to

disorders caused by conflicting interests. A dawn of hope however began to break upon the political horizon of Gallia. The dissensions between the english houses of York and Lancaster commenced, and were likely so far to occupy the attention of the english nation, as to prevent the recommencement of a war which had been long the scourge of both nations.

## TALE XXIX.

### FACTIONS OF ORLEANS AND BURGUNDY.

Our last tale left France in a situation equally extraordinary and disastrous. The unfortunate monarch Charles VI. was so incurably affected with his disorder, that only from time to time, a gleam of reason enabled him to express an opinion on politics, which those who had the nearest access to his person never failed to mould to their own purposes. His person was strictly secluded, and during his incapacity, the two factions of Orleans and Burgundy, contended with the most bitter strife for the power of government.

The queen Isabella, wife of Charles VI., an ambitious and violent woman, espoused the interest of the Orleans party, with a warmth

which, as the duke was a libertine young man, was prejudicial to her reputation.

Each of these factions took the most violent and unscrupulous means of doing whatever might injure their rivals in the public opinion. In the mean time, the peace of France was threatened, from without, while the country was a prey to discordant factions. A contract of marriage between Richard II. of England and Isabella, the young princess of France, had promised a long and solid peace to both nations; but the dethronement and death of Richard, (A. D. 1399) dissipated all these happy prospects. The french princess was still residing at the court of England; and although her proposed husband was dethroned, and, it is believed, murdered, Henry IV. would fain have detained her there as future bride for his son, afterwards Henry V. But the french nation was incensed at the death of Richard, and therefore unfavourable to the proposed marriage.

In the year 1400, during a casual absence of the duke of Burgundy from court, the opposite party had the art to extract from the king, then in one of his lucid intervals, a commission appointing his brother, the duke of Orleans, his lieutenant, and regent of the kingdom, when he himself should, by the visitation of God, be prevented administering

the government. This was partly obtained by the influence of the queen, who hated the duchess of Burgundy. But the new regent used his power very unskillfully.

In the quarrel between the two Popes, which still subsisted, he espoused the cause of Benedict, which was the most unpopular in France; he likewise imposed taxes which rendered his government intolerably oppressive, and caused him to be deprived of his regency by an assembly of the great men of the kingdom. Both dukes then took arms, and a civil war seemed inevitable; when, by the interference of the dukes of Berri, and Bourbon, and other princes of the blood, it was declared that both Orleans and Burgundy should be excluded from the government of the kingdom. It was then vested in the council of state, over which the queen presided. Philip, duke of Burgundy, soon after died suddenly, upon a journey, so very much embarrassed by debts, that his duchess renounced any share in his movable succession; and in testimony of her doing so, laid in the coffin of the deceased prince, the keys of his household, and the girdle at which she had worn them.

John, duke of Burgundy, who succeeded Philip, was called the Fearless. He inherited the animosities which had existed between his father and the other princes, and like his

father he had the address to secure a very strong party in the city of Paris. In consequence of the dissensions which followed, the dauphin, a young man, of weak mind, fled with his mother towards Melun, but was pursued by the Burgundian party and brought back by force.

Each prince now assumed a device. Orleans, to indicate his right to the regency, displayed a hand grasping a club full of knots, with the motto — *I envy it*. — Burgundy, on the other hand, chose a carpenter's plane, with a Flemish motto — *Ie houd* — that is — *I hold* — the means of smoothing the knotted club.

Mutual friends and relatives once more interfered, and brought the contending parties to a solemn agreement, (A. D. 1405). They dismissed their troops; met together in the hotel of the count de Saint-Paul; embraced each other, and took the sacrament. They were now employed for a short time in the public cause, the one against the English in Guienne, the other against Calais; but the campaign was closed by a truce of one year's duration. The smothered enmity of the two dukes became more and more bitter, and at length the duke of Burgundy meditated ending the feud by putting his rival to death. On the 23<sup>d</sup> November the duke of Orleans, being at the queen's apartments, where he usually spent the even-



ing, was summoned to wait on the king immediately. As he was going, in obedience to the summons, mounted on a mule, and attended by two gentlemen only, and a few valets on foot, he fell into an ambush posted for the purpose of assassinating him. The leader of these ruffians was one D'Hacquetonville. This man struck at the duke with his battle-axe; the blow fell on his right hand which it struck off. "*I am the duke of Orleans,*" cried he. "*It is he whom we seek,*" answered his assassins with wild exultation; and striking the prince from his saddle, they cut him limb from limb. They had taken every precaution to ensure the perpetration of the murder, and their own escape. The streets were strewed with caltrops, for laming the horses of such as should attempt a pursuit; a house was set on fire by the assassins who cried, "Fire, fire!" to distract the attention of the people from the cries of "murder! murder!" which were uttered by the retinue of the duke of Orleans.

In the morning the body was discovered, dreadfully hacked and dismembered: the duke of Burgundy at first affected innocence and surprise; but on a threat to arrest some of his followers, he shewed such signs of guilt, that the princes of the blood advised him to retreat from Paris to his own dominions, which he did with much precipitation; and

finding his party willing to support him, he assembled an army, and advanced upon Paris, having with him, as an apologist, a doctor in theology, named John Petit, who, in the face of the Dauphin, and princes of the blood, arraigned the late duke of Orleans as a traitor; and shamelessly justified the duke of Burgundy for the vile murder accomplished on the body of his near relation. The duke demanded, and obtained, of the Dauphin a full pardon for the murder of Orleans; but no sooner had Burgundy left Paris with his forces, to quell an insurrection in Flanders, than the Orleans party took arms in the capital, determined to revenge the foul murder.

The number of the duke of Burgundy's enemies was rapidly augmented by the appearance of Valentina, the widowed duchess of the victim; she was followed by all her household in deep mourning. Her premature death, supposed to be caused by the dreadful fate of her husband, prevented her prosecuting her revenge, and added to the execrations bestowed on his assassins.

The duke of Burgundy was accused before the parliament of Paris; the pardon he had obtained from the dauphin was declared void; and the doom of treason was denounced against him. Hardly had sentence been pronounced when news arrived that he was approaching

Paris at the head of an army, breathing defiance against his enemies.

The city of Paris, and the country of France were now divided into two violent factions, who distinguished themselves by badges to designate their parties. One wore red sashes, with the cross of St. Andrew, and were called Cabochins, from Caboche, a butcher, a distinguished partisan of the Burgundian party : The followers of Orleans wore white sashes with St. George's cross, and termed themselves Armagnacs, from the earl of that name, the father-in-law of the duke of Orleans. The Parisians took up arms as Cabochins; and a body of butchers were the most active in the cause of Burgundy.

- The Orleans party moved upon the capital and threatened Paris with a siege. But the duke of Burgundy threw himself into the city with a body of troops, part of whom were English, with which nation the duke had made a league. These auxiliaries were commanded by the earl of Arundel, and conducted themselves with such good discipline, that they were of great service to the cause they espoused.

The Orleans faction, who remarked this advantage of the opposite party, made such advantageous offers to Henry IV. of England, that he was induced to send them assistance, and he accordingly dispatched to France, 18<sup>th</sup>

May 1412, a thousand men-at-arms, and three thousand archers; and his younger son Thomas of Clarence, was to be appointed general of the auxiliary army.

Amid these preparations, in which the horrors of foreign invasion were added to those of civil war, Charles VI. awakened from a long fit of stupor, and became sensible, as he sometimes was for intervals, to the distresses of his kingdom. His indignation was great at finding the Armagnac party far advanced in a treaty, the principal article of which was the introduction of an english army into France.

Greatly displeased therefore with the dukes of Berri and Bourbon, and others of the party, Charles marched in person against them, and besieged the city of Bourges, which was one of their strong-holds. The besieged made a desperate sally with the view of taking prisoners king Charles and his eldest son Louis. In this they were disappointed, and found themselves so hard pressed in their turn, that they were obliged to submit to conditions dictated by the king, in which both parties, Armagnacs, and Cabochins, were forced to renounce their leagues with the English.

The English arrived in the mean time under the duke of Clarence, and were not easily dismissed. The Orleans party, by a large sum of ready money, and the promise of a much larger,

persuaded the english prince to withdraw, after having done considerable damage to the country.

Peace being thus apparently re-established, there seemed to be some chance of healing the bleeding wounds of France; but the utter disregard of the ordinary bonds of faith between man and man, soon threw all into confusion. The dauphin, Charles, heir of the crown, now began to take a decided part, independant of his mother, the queen. He hated the duke of Burgundy, and discovered, or perhaps pretended to discover, that he had laid a plan for destroying the remaining branches of the house of Orleans. The informer was a certain Pierre des Essards, who had been a creature of the duke of Burgundy. He received orders from the dauphin to secure the Bastille, then considered as the citadel of Paris.

Burgundy counteracted so effectually the scheme of the dauphin, that des Essards had no sooner possessed himself of the Bastille, than all Paris was in uproar. The mob, commanded by Caboché the butcher, took arms, and des Essards, obliged to surrender the citadel, was seized and put to death. There were also killed some persons in high office about the dauphin's person, and the king with the dukes of Berri and Bourbon, was compelled to go to the par-

liament wearing red hoods, the emblems of the Burgundy party.

Impatient of mob-tyranny, which is of all others the most difficult to endure, the dauphin took measures for recalling the Orleans party. They entered Paris, and Burgundy finding himself unable to make a stand, retired to his own territories in Flanders.

The queen, the dauphin, and the lords, who had thus obtained power, could not agree; so Isabella induced most of them to unite against the authority of her son, whom she described as a giddy youth, unfit for power. The queen even broke into the dauphin's apartments, and seized upon four of his attendants whom she said were agents of the duke of Burgundy. The young prince was so highly offended at this personal insult, that he wrote to Burgundy, that he was prisoner in his own capital, and invited him to come with his forces and deliver him.

A slighter invitation would have brought the duke to Paris; and he instantly advanced at the head of a large force of his own vassals. Charles however had resumed for a short time the reins of government, and he immediately sent forth an edict, reproaching the duke with the murder of Orleans. The dauphin who seems to have been fickle and uncertain, had by this time changed his party, and invited

the Orleans faction into the city ; with so strong a body of horse , that they were able to disarm the citizens. He also took from the Parisians the chains and barricades with which they were accustomed to block up their streets , and once more put it out of their power to disturb the public tranquillity. The duke of Burgundy advanced in the meantime towards the city , but finding the state of the capital unfavourable , and being deserted by the dauphin , he abandoned his enterprise.

The king, surrounded by all the princes of the blood-royal , except the lineage of Burgundy, marched into Artois , the territory of the duke, with the purpose to subdue it ; and Burgundy , alarmed at finding himself deserted by his subjects , began to negotiate for a peace. It was concluded accordingly , and this time appeared to possess a fair chance of being permanent.

But it was not long the pleasure of Heaven to protect the state of foreign peace , which France had enjoyed during her domestic divisions. Henry IV. of England , an unpopular king , could not , owing to disturbances at home , profit by the disunion of the French. But that english king had just died , and was succeeded by his son the celebrated Henri V. , a young hero beloved by the nation , and who breathed nothing but invasion and conquest against his neighbours.

In 1415 he landed in Normandy and took Harfleur : the siege of which cost him so many men that he was obliged to retire before the French who followed him. The English retreated towards Calais, closely pursued by the French under the constable d'Albret. Henry at last arriving at a favourable position, made a halt, and the french commander attacked him furiously, though the nature of the ground prevented him from availing himself of his immense superiority in forces. The English fought desperately, and, taking advantage of the blunders of the enemy's commanders, gained as brilliant a victory as at Cressy, though fighting against an army of four times their own number.

The loss of the French at this battle, which took place near Azincourt, was seven princes, the constable, and eight thousand privates killed : the dukes of Orleans, and Bourbon, many nobles and others made prisoners.

Henry however agreed to a truce and retired ; but France, though delivered from a powerful foreign enemy, was still a prey to civil discord. The count d'Armagnac had obtained the post of constable : he united his forces with the Dauphin. The queen, on her side, united with the duke of Burgundy, and each of these two parties pretended to govern the nation ; the Dauphin holding a parliament at



Poitiers, and the queen taking the title of regent, and assembling a parliament at Troyes. After some time an interview was proposed between the Dauphin and the duke of Burgundy, to procure a reconciliation. They met on the bridge of Montereau, and during the interview Burgundy was assassinated by one of the Dauphin's people. This set all in flames again; the queen united with the young duke of Burgundy, and during these commotions, the English having profited by the divided state of the country, and taken Rouen and Pontoise, now marched to join the queen at Troyes.

Soon after his arrival, a treaty was concluded, by which Henry obtained in marriage the french princess Catherine. He was also declared regent of France and heir to the crown; the Dauphin having been declared an enemy to the state.

Henry soon after made his triumphal entry into the french capital: he did not however live long to enjoy his honours; on his death bed he named his eldest brother, the duke of Bedford, regent of France. The unfortunate Charles survived him but two months. None of his family were seen at his funeral, but the spectators shewed their sympathy by shedding abundance of tears.

## TALE XXX.

REIGN OF CHARLES VII. (1422).

## JOAN OF ARC.

PARIS, and indeed three fourths of France, was at this time under the dominion of the English. The Dauphin had retired beyond the river Loire and taken the title of Charles VII. ; but he thought more of his pleasures than of his kingdom. Fortunately for Charles a misunderstanding between the duke of Burgundy and the English prevented the latter from increasing their power : in addition to which they received a severe check from a very extraordinary circumstance.

The duke of Bedford was besieging Orleans, when suddenly a young country-girl in Lorraine, named Joan of Arc, declared that she had had several visions, and that she was excited by divine inspiration to drive the English from Orleans, and to conduct Charles safely to Rheims where he should be crowned.

She was interrogated ; and her answers inspired such confidence that the command of the place was given to her. She appeared at the

head of the troops in a brilliant uniform, and communicated such enthusiasm that they fought with irresistible bravery, and soon forced the English to abandon the siege. She then conducted Charles to Rheims, a distance of about eighty leagues through a country in possession of the enemy, whose panic was equal to the enthusiasm of the French; the latter convinced that they were defended by Heaven, and the former that they were attacked by Hell.

The Dauphin being crowned as Charles VII., the maid of Orleans (as she was then called) said she had accomplished her mission, and requested leave to retire. She was however detained; but her enthusiastic confidence had vanished, and with it her good fortune. She was wounded and taken prisoner, at Compiègne, by the duke of Burgundy; he delivered her to the English, who, *to their eternal disgrace*, burnt her at Rouen as a witch.

This execrable cruelty, and the general haughtiness of the duke of Bedford, so disgusted the duke of Burgundy (Philip the Good) that he abandoned the English. The Dauphin awoke from his reverie, and, with the assistance of his able generals, the constable Richemont and Dunois, a natural child of the duke of Orleans, took town after town till nothing was left but Calais, in possession of the enemy. The latter years of Charles' reign might have

been happy had they not been embittered by the indocility of his son Louis ( afterwards Louis XI. ) whose bad conduct, it is said, hastened the death of his father which happened in 1461.

## TALE XXXI.

REIGN OF LOUIS XI. (1461).

LOUIS, the son of Charles VII., succeeded his father, and is said to have possessed all the qualities that can render a man, and particularly a monarch, detestable. Cruel, superstitious and hypocritical, his policy was founded on oppression and deceit. He was very jealous of the nobles, and continually occupied in diminishing their power; the consequence was a league formed against him, at the head of which were Charles, son of Philip the Good, duke of Burgundy; the dukes of Berri, Bourbon, and Bretagne. Charles of Burgundy was from his impetuous courage called the Bold.

A battle was fought between the leaguers and the king's forces, in which the latter were so roughly handled that Louis thought fit to make a peace; but it was only for the purpose of gaining time to circumvent his adversaries. He secretly endeavoured to excite a rebellion

against Charles the Bold among his subjects the Liegeois, and, to lull him into a deceitful security, Louis had an interview with him at the strong town of Péronne. The insurrection broke out at Liege sooner than he intended, and Charles, having learned that the perfidious king was at the bottom of it, kept him prisoner, and dragged him in his suite against the revolted Liegeois, where he had the mortification of seeing the duke conquer the rebels, reduce the town to ashes, and massacre the greatest part of the insurgents.

The duplicity of Louis, and the impetuosity of Charles, caused continual wars, notwithstanding the frequent treaties between them. It was on one of those occasions that the Burgundians laid siege to Beauvais, where, the garrison being weak, the town was in great danger. Suddenly however the women rose in a mass headed by the celebrated JEANNE HACHETTE, and soon compelled the besiegers to retire. To commemorate their bravery, there is a procession every year, at Beauvais, in which the women take the lead.

You may easily imagine that such a man as Louis could have very few friends: he was surrounded by creatures of the worst description, who only attached themselves to him because they thus found opportunities of exercising and satisfying their brutal passions. Lord Byron

says, in speaking of Giaffir in the BRIDE OF  
ABYDOS :

“ Such still to guilt just Alla sends,

“ Slaves, tools, accomplices; no friends. ’

Among the instruments of his tyranny and cruelty was one, who rendered himself very conspicuous by his promptitude in executing the cruel orders of Louis, and by his ingenuity in inventing new modes of punishment. This was Tristan l’Hermite the grand prevost. There was also a very bad man, named La Balue, whom the king had raised, for his vile services, to the rank of cardinal. Like most bad men he was incapable of fidelity to any one. Louis discovered that he had betrayed some of his secrets; he therefore had him thrust into an iron cage in a dungeon, where he dragged on a miserable life during eleven years. You must remark that it was La Balue himself who had recommended to Louis this barbarous kind of imprisonment for his captives.

The crimes of Louis XI. had caused him so many enemies, and rendered him so suspicious that he did not think himself safe at Paris : he therefore retired to the castle of *Plessis-lès-Tours*, on the banks of the Loire. The castle was soon fortified in the strongest manner, and in the avenues leading to it were gins, traps, pitfalls and other machines to destroy

the unwary who should approach too near the fearful monarch. Among other acts of cruelty, Louis put to death the duke of Nemours, and it is said obliged the duke's two sons to witness the execution; after which they were confined in iron cages where, after suffering many cruelties, one of them died, but the other outlived the barbarous king, and was liberated. Louis was even jealous of his son the Dauphin, and caused him to be brought up in retirement, refusing him a suitable education. Being asked if he should not learn latin, he replied, "All the latin necessary for him to know is the phrase : *Qui nescit dissimulare, nescit regnare.*"

Charles the Bold, whose ambition and temerity equalled the cautious cruelty of Louis, at length fell a victim to those passions. He already possessed Burgundy, Artois, Flanders and the greater part of Holland; but being desirous to obtain more extensive dominion, he marched against the Swiss and was beaten by them at the battle of Granson. His baggage and equipage fell into the hands of the enemy, and it is said that the Swiss were so ignorant of luxury, that his silver plate was sold as old pewter; and a very valuable diamond passed from hand to hand for the value of a florin. Charles was soon after beaten and slain at Nancy, and having no male heir, Louis seized the

duchy of Burgundy and united it to the crown.

England being still divided by the factions of the *white and red roses*, (the houses of York and Lancaster) was prevented from doing any thing very important on the continent. The duke of Burgundy however excited Edward IV. to make a descent in France and reclaim Guienne and Normandy. Louis, by negotiation and by great sums of money distributed among the english ministers, bought a truce of seven years. It was by means of large distributions of money that Louis maintained his policy, and consequently he was obliged to increase the taxes considerably; but he told the French that he took their money to spare their blood.

Notwithstanding the bad qualities of this king, France is indebted to him for some useful establishments. The post for letters was instituted in his reign; he encouraged printing which then began to be generally known, and he placed the monarchy of France on a firmer base than it had yet been.

As he advanced in age he became more superstitious and mistrustful: at length bodily indisposition, added to mental disorders, carried him to the grave in 1483 at the age of 60.



## TALE XXXII.

REIGN OF CHARLES VIII. (1483).

At the death of Louis XI. the Dauphin was but thirteen years old ; his eldest sister, Anne duchess of Beaujeu, was therefore appointed regent during his minority. This caused a civil war ; for the duke of Orleans aspired to the government ; but unsuccessful in his intrigues, he united with the duke of Bretagne in open revolt ; a battle was fought between the king's troops and those of Orleans near St. Aubin ; the duke was defeated and taken prisoner. He remained in captivity during three years, when the king, having attained the age of governing, liberated him without further punishment.

The duke of Bretagne dying without male heir, his daughter Anne succeeded to the duchy. There was a mutual attachment between the duchess Ann and the duke of Orleans ; but in order to unite Bretagne to the crown, a marriage was proposed between her and Charles VIII., and she became, against her will, queen of France.

Margaret of Austria, daughter of Maximilian, had been betrothed to Charles, and was even brought up at the court of France : the in-

tended union was broken off, and her father took arms to revenge the insult; being however badly supported he gained no advantage. Charles however having been persuaded to enforce some pretended claims upon Naples, restored to Maximilian the free county of Artois which Louis XI. had seized, and thus got rid of this adversary.

Charles then marched against Naples, and though his army was inconsiderable, their bravery spread terror among the Italians, and the city was soon in the possession of the French. The monarch however, instead of profiting by his good fortune, and taking measures to secure his conquest, abandoned himself to pleasure, leaving his affairs to men who were incapable of conducting them. His enemies took advantage of his negligence. They raised forces on every side, and Charles found his situation becoming so critical that he resolved to return to France: he therefore commenced his retreat with the remains of his army, except a small garrison of about four thousand men.

The enemy were determined to cut off his retreat, and, having collected an army of about thirty thousand men, prepared to attack the French, whose numbers were reduced to seven or eight thousand. This battle took place at Fornoue, and notwithstanding the numerical

inferiority of Charles' troops, their bravery obtained them, in less than an hour, so complete a victory, that they were enabled to continue their march in safety.

The weak garrison that had been left at Naples could not long resist the superior forces by which they were attacked, and they were at length driven out of Italy by Gonzalve de Cordoue, a celebrated spanish general of that time.

Charles did not long survive his defeat in Italy. He died in the prime of life, and all his children having died before him, he was succeeded by Louis, the duke of Orleans.

Charles VIII. bore an excellent character, and was therefore much regretted by the nation. Some very important events happened about this time. The mariner's compass was invented, and by its aid several foreign discoveries were made; the most important of which was that of America, by Christopher Columbus, a Genoese. — Spain, which was divided into numerous petty states, perpetually at war with each other, now became a powerful kingdom by the marriage of Isabella of Castile with Ferdinand of Arragon. Constantinople was taken by the Turks under Mahomet II., which overthrew the greek empire.

## TALE XXXIII.

REIGN OF LOUIS XII. (1498).

WHEN the duke of Orleans came to the throne his former enemies feared the effects of his resentment; but he calmed their apprehensions by saying, "*The king of France does not revenge the injuries of the duke of Orleans.*"

The queen dowager Ann, widow of Charles VIII., expressed a desire to retire to her own country, not wishing to see the throne of her late husband occupied by another; but Louis, having obtained a divorce from his first wife, offered his hand to Ann. She accepted, and thus became the wife of her first lover, and a second time queen of France.

Louis, like his predecessor, cast ambitious eyes towards Italy, and shortly entered it at the head of a numerous army. He obtained some important victories, taking Milan and Genoa. Louis then turned his attention to Naples, and offered to divide it with Ferdinand of Spain; the latter accepted the proposition, though the king of Naples was a relation. Gonzalve de Cordoue marched towards Naples with an army under pretence of assist-

ing the Neapolitans; but he soon joined the French and hastened its fall. The king sought an asylum in France, where he lived in a retired manner.

It was in these wars that the celebrated BAYARD rendered himself so conspicuous as to acquire the title of *the knight without fear or reproach*.

The Spaniards, after having assisted the French in the capture of Naples, quarrelled with them about the division of it; some battles ensued, in one of which the duke of Nemours lost his life, and Spain obtained entire possession of Naples.

About this time the Venetians, having acquired great wealth by their persevering commerce, began to think of enlarging their territories by conquest. They invaded several neighbouring places, and even took some towns belonging to the ecclesiastical government of Rome; but an alliance was soon formed against them, and they lost what they had conquered, and, if the allies had been faithful to each other, Venice herself, would have fallen a victim to their vengeance. A severe battle was fought near Agnadel, during which some of the officers represented to Louis that there was great danger; he immediately exclaimed "Let those who fear place themselves behind me." Notwithstanding the bravery of the french army, the duplicity of some of the allies obliged them to

retire into France, after having wasted immense treasures, and shed torrents of blood.

Louis was obliged to use the greatest economy in order to repair his finances; and among other retrenchments he either discontinued paying, or talked of diminishing the subsidies granted to the Swiss. That people took arms against the French. They entered France on one side, while Henry VIII. of England invaded it on another. The French were beaten at the battle of Guinegate, and the English, following up their victory, soon took Terouenne and Tournay. The Swiss were not idle on their side; they besieged Dijon, and would have taken it had not the governor of Burgundy granted their demands, and thus persuaded them to retire. Louis soon after made peace with the English by paying, it is said, a million of gold crowns; and to establish a better understanding between the two nations, he married a sister of Henry VIII., but died the succeeding year.

He bore a very good character and was much esteemed by the nation, being always occupied in endeavouring to lighten the burthen of his subjects. His courtiers frequently blamed his rigid domestic economy; but he replied : *I would rather hear you blame my economy, than see my people weep on account of my prodigality.* He was a great admirer of the arts and liberally rewarded merit.

It is said that he always had two lists by him, one, of places or pensions that he could grant, and the other, of men whose merit deserved recompense. He thus obtained the title of *the Father of his people*.

## TALE XXXIV.

REIGN OF FRANCIS I. (1515).

Francis I., count of Angouleme, who succeeded Louis XII., was young, animated and brave; and like most young men in power, he possessed more ambition than prudence. Like his predecessors he aimed at the conquest of Italy, or at least of a considerable part of it. He therefore assembled a numerous army, and the finances not being, at that time, very flourishing, considerable sums of money were obtained by the sale of places under government.

Francis advanced with his army towards Italy, but when he arrived at the passes of the Alps he found a formidable force of Swiss prepared to oppose his passage.

A dreadful battle took place, which lasted two days and one night; it was so sanguinary, and so hotly contested, that it has been called the battle of the giants, and also the battle of

Marignan, because it was fought near that town. The Swiss were beaten, and the French entered Italy without further opposition, making several conquests.

Fortune however turned against them; the brave Bayard was killed at the battle of Rebec; the French were discouraged, and their enemies became proportionably animated. The consequence was that place after place was lost, till Francis, seeing the desperate situation of his troops, resolved to make a powerful effort to repair his losses beyond the Alps. He hastily raises an army, places himself at the head of it, rushes into Italy, and obtains some advantages: the forces of Charles V., then king of Spain, were assembled near Pavia to arrest the progress of the French. Francis attacked them with impetuosity, thinking to obtain an easy victory over the Spaniards; his army was however defeated and cut to pieces, and he himself wounded and taken prisoner. Francis immediately wrote to his mother, the duchess of Angouleme, commencing his letter by those memorable words, "*Tout est perdu fors l'honneur.*"

Charles V. offered the king of France his liberty on condition of receiving for himself the dukedom of Burgundy; that Provence and Dauphiny should be ceded to the duke of Bourbon with the title of kingdom, and that the pro-



vinces formerly possessed by the English should be restored to Henry VIII., king of that nation. Francis declared that he would die in prison rather than submit to such a degradation, adding that if *he* could be base enough, *his people* would never permit the kingdom to be so dismembered.

After some time he began to reflect, and soon persuaded himself that, though he should enter into the engagements required by Charles, it might be possible, when he was once at liberty, to avoid fulfilling them; he therefore signed a humiliating treaty called the treaty of Madrid, and his two eldest sons were given as hostages for the execution of it.

Francis had scarcely returned to his kingdom when he declared it would be impossible for him to execute the treaty of Madrid, complained of the ill treatment he had received in Spain, and finished by offering a ransom for his sons. Charles V. insisted on the execution of the treaty; Francis refused, and, with the assistance of England, began another campaign in Italy. The french arms were again unsuccessful, and Francis was compelled to sign a treaty made at Cambray, abandoning all pretensions on Italy, ceding Artois and all claims to the government of Flanders, and agreeing to pay to Charles V. two millions of gold crowns as a ransom for his sons.

Some time after this, the emperor Charles V., exalted by his successes, determined to invade France.

He advanced, at the head of fifty thousand men, towards Provence, which had been trusted to the marquis of Saluces, who, instead of defending the country, traitorously abandoned it to the enemy, and the south of France was inundated by the imperial troops. By the prudent conduct of the marshall Anne de Montmorency the invading army was reduced to great distress. He caused all provisions in the towns and villages near the seat of war to be carried off; this soon produced the desired effect; the army of Charles V., attacked by famine and disease, was compelled to make a precipitate retreat, not daring to risk a battle with Montmorency who waited for them in a strong entrenchment before Avignon.

In this manner passed several years of the reign of Francis the First, sometimes invading the territories of his neighbours, and at others obliged to defend his own against their incursions. Towards the end of his reign, France was invaded by the united forces of Charles V. and Henry VIII., and, if the campaign had been well conducted, the consequences might have been fatal to the French; but the two armies seemed more occupied in taking places for themselves than in uniting their strength to

march against the capital. Thus the summer was lost, and Charles, not wishing to expose his troops to the rigours of a winter campaign, concluded a peace without consulting Henry VIII., who soon after made a treaty, and left France, retaining, of all his conquests, only Boulogne, which he engaged to restore in eight years for the sum of 800,000 gold crowns.

I must not forget, as we are speaking of Henry VIII., to tell you of a celebrated interview that took place between him and Francis in the early part of the french king's reign. They met in a field near Calais, and such was the magnificence of the tents and temporary palaces erected for the occasion, that the spot acquired the name of THE FIELD OF GOLDEN CLOTH. The nobles of the two courts vied with each other in magnificence, and it is said that many of them ruined themselves to eclipse their rivals. The two kings passed a month in pleasures of all kinds, and then separated with declarations of mutual esteem, as sincere as such declarations generally are. About the year 1539, during a truce between Charles V. and Francis, there was a revolt at Ghent, and Charles asked permission to pass through France to go and attack the rebels: it was readily granted, and he was honourably received at Paris. On this occasion the buffoon, or fool at the french court appeared before the king with an enormous

book under his arm, and when Francis asked what he was going to do with it, he answered, "It is to inscribe the names of those who are greater fools than I am, and I have just written that of the emperor Charles." "Why so?" said the king. "For exposing himself to the power of his greatest rival," replied Triboulet (the buffoon). "But suppose I let him pass freely?" "O, said the fool, I shall then efface his name and inscribe that of Francis I." Charles however passed on unmolested.

Some time after that, the emperor having considerably augmented his dominions, Francis found him too dangerous a rival, and resolved to restore the balance of power: he therefore began to league with several european monarchs; but death put an end to his projects. He paid the debt of nature in 1547 at the age of 52.

In this reign the royal printing office was age established, the Louvre was commenced, and public acts were ordered to be written in french.

## TALE XXXV.

REIGN OF HENRY II. (1547).

HENRY, the second of that name, son of Francis I., succeeded his father on the throne of France: his reign was much disturbed by the

rapid spreading of a difference in religious opinions. A man named MARTIN LUTHER had already preached with great effect in Germany, against the supremacy of the Pope, as head of the christian church. He denounced also some other doctrines and ceremonies of the catholic religion, and obtained great numbers of disciples. A few years after there appeared in France a monk named CALVIN, who preached nearly the same doctrine as Luther, adding that it was idolatrous and profane to address prayers and invocations to the images in the churches. Calvin made also numerous proselytes, and the two sects having united in protesting against an order of a general council of bishops, calling upon them to renounce their errors and return to the romish church; having *protested*, I say, publicly against this order, they acquired the general title of Protestants.

Before the accession of Henry II., this sect had become very numerous in France; many noble families had adopted its opinions, and among them was the brave admiral de Coligny, nephew of Anne de Montmorency, who thus rendered himself obnoxious to several nobles, and particularly so to the duke de Guise, who, having acquired great influence at court, excited a persecution against the Protestants which cost many of them their lives.

The war between the emperor and the French still continued to spread its devastations, and to swallow up immense sums obtained with difficulty from the people, who were tired of exhausting their riches and shedding their blood to no purpose. — At length, both nations being desirous of repose; a truce for five years was concluded, by which the two monarchs were to retain their respective conquests.

Charles V. now growing old became tired of the fatigues and anxieties of government; he therefore formally abdicated in favour of his son Philip II., who did not however take the title of emperor, because the empire was divided into two branches, *viz.* the imperial branch of Austria, and the kingdom of Spain. Charles then retired to a monastery in Estramadura where, in 1558, he ended his days, far from the noise and intrigues of court.

Soon after this the duke de Guise was recalled from a fruitless campaign against Naples, to undertake one that promised more glory.

You know that the English had possessed Calais during a long time (more than two centuries), and they thought themselves so secure that they became imprudently negligent. Not fearing to be attacked in the winter, they used to withdraw the greater part of the garrison at

the end of autumn. The duke of Guise profited by this want of caution ; he put himself at the head of an army , and without marching so directly towards Calais as to excite suspicion , approached near enough to attack it before sufficient preparations could be made for its defence , and it fell again into the hands of the French , its natural owners. This loss took such an effect on Mary queen of England , that she said the name of Calais would be found on her heart after her death.

All parties began to wish for peace , and a treaty was concluded in 1559. Elizabeth , daughter of Henry VIII. , had just succeeded her sister Mary on the throne of England ; she agreed to the treaty , leaving Calais to the French , on condition of restoring it in eight years , or of paying her five hundred thousand crowns. To strengthen the bonds of peace between France and Spain , a double marriage took place ; Philip II. married the eldest daughter of Henry II. , and the duke of Savoy became the husband of Henry's sister.

To celebrate these marriages public rejoicings were given , and among the rest was a royal tournament in which the king , tilting with a knight named Montgomery , received a wound in the eye which caused his death a few days after.

Towards the end of this reign the number

of Protestants increased considerably, notwithstanding the persecutions to which they were continually exposed.

## TALE XXXVI.

SHORT REIGN OF FRANCIS II. (1559).

HENRY II. left three sons, the eldest of whom, then only sixteen, ascended the throne with the title of Francis the Second; but his mother Catherine de Medicis, a very ambitious and deceitful woman, governed the kingdom in his name, with the assistance of the Guises.

Mary Stuart, whose misfortunes have rendered her so celebrated, had been educated in France; she was at this time young and beautiful, and became the wife of Francis II. and queen of France. This reign, though very short, was a very stormy one; the protestants became daily more and more powerful, and the zeal with which they were opposed seemed to increase their ardor, and even to excite them to revenge the persecutions to which they were exposed. Admiral de Coligny and his brothers, nephews of Montmorency, who were at the head of the Protestants, thus rendered themselves particularly obnoxious to



the powerful Guises, who were among the most zealous of their persecutors.

The dissenters at last finding themselves powerful, and having the support of Antoine de Bourbon and the prince of Condé, began to think of revenging themselves on the Guises. A plot was formed for that purpose at Amboise, where the court then resided; it failed however in consequence of being betrayed by one of the party, and great numbers of the Protestants were put to death. The prince of Condé was imprisoned, but no direct proofs appearing against him he was liberated.

No sooner was he free than he publicly declared himself a protestant. He was soon accused of a new conspiracy, judged and condemned to death, and his brother, the king of Navarre, strictly guarded. The Guises were on the point of triumphing when the death of the king at the age of 17 and some months, put an end to their power.

Mary Stuart, the widow of Francis, returned to Scotland where new misfortunes awaited her.

## TALE XXXVII.

REIGN OF CHARLES IX. (1560).

CHARLES IX. eldest brother of Francis II., was but ten years old when he succeeded him on

the throne. Though the commencement of this reign appeared auspicious, it became one of the most stormy and sanguinary that France had known.

To give an appearance of mercy and toleration, Condé was pardoned, the king of Navarre named lieutenant general of the kingdom, and Montmorency, who had been long in disgrace, was restored to honour. A very amiable and clever man, MICHEL DE LHOSPITAL, was named chancellor, or keeper of the seals. By his perseverance it is said the kingdom was saved from the establishment of the Inquisition, proposed by the cardinal of Lorraine. It was forbidden, on pain of death, to do violence to any one on account of his religious opinions; tranquillity began to show itself, but was again disturbed by an unforeseen event.

The duke of Guise was passing through Vassy in Champagne, where some protestants were assembled to hear a sermon in a barn; some of the duke's people insulted them, and Guise endeavouring to appease the tumult was wounded by a stone. His attendants immediately fell on the people without mercy, and, it is said, massacred sixty of them. This event exasperated both parties, and they commenced their attacks in different parts of the kingdom. The prince de Condé put himself at the head of one party; the king of Na-

varre commanded another, and a civil war commenced, in which, to the disgrace of all parties, the noble sentiment of patriotism was sacrificed to fanatic persecution under pretext of supporting that mild, consoling religion, one of whose principles commands us not to shed each other's blood.

Condé took Orleans, Rouen, and several other towns: he delivered Havre to the English in order to obtain assistance from them. The king of Navarre attacked and took Rouen, but in the assault he received a mortal wound. The duke of Guise besieged Orleans, and had made himself master of its suburbs when he was killed by one of the adverse party.

In this state of things another attempt at pacification took place; some concessions were made to the protestants; they were allowed the public exercise of their worship, and during this calm a sense of patriotism appeared to revive. France blushed to see the English in possession of one of her most important ports, and Elizabeth having refused to give it up, except on a restitution of Calais, it was taken by force, and peace concluded between the two countries.

Another civil war broke out between the Protestants and the Catholics; a severe battle was fought near St. Denis, where the constable Montmorency was killed at the age of 80. A

deceitful peace followed this, which in less than six months was succeeded by a third civil war.

Several battles were fought, and the Protestants, having gained some advantages, though they paid dearly for them, by the loss of Condé who was killed at Jarnac, obtained, by the treaty of St. Germain, the liberty of conscience and eligibility to public employ. This acquisition of power rendered them the more obnoxious, and the more hateful to their adversaries, and caused an explosion fatal to many thousands of them.

A marriage was now proposed between Margaret, the king's sister, and Henry, the young king of Navarre: this attracted the principal nobility of France to the capital; and as party hatred seemed a little calmed, Coligny and the young Condé went to witness the celebration of the festivals. Coligny, as he was returning home one night (the 22<sup>nd</sup> of August 1572) was fired at and wounded by an assassin. The king paid him a visit of condolence and promised to punish the assassin.

This however was but the commencement of the dreadful massacre of St. Bartholomew; for in the night of the 24<sup>th</sup>, the great bell of the church of St. Germain l'Auxerrois gave the preconcerted signal of attack; the duke of Guise, at the head of an armed band, went to the house of Coligny; he rose from his bed,

went, unarmed, to meet them, and was immediately assassinated ; his body was then thrown from the window and dragged about the streets by the infatuated populace, whose sanguinary rage knew no bounds ; they entered the houses of all who were even *suspected* of protestantism ; neither age nor sex was spared ; houses and streets were inundated with blood , and the water of the Seine was polluted by the immense numbers of dead bodies thrown into it. The massacre was not confined to the capital ; the provinces were also witnesses of its horrible scenes ; though one governor has acquired immortal honour by replying to the murderous orders of the court, "*Your majesty has many good soldiers and faithful subjects here, but I should in vain seek an assassin* \*."

To give a colour of justice, or rather to offer some excuse for this horrid butchery, it was given out at court that a conspiracy against the royal family had been discovered, and was to have been executed that very night. It is said, though it is hardly credible , that during this scene of carnage the king stood at one of the windows of the Louvre, armed with an arquebuss, and amused himself by firing at the fugitives. Charles IX. did not long survive this

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\* The viscount d'Orthe, commandant of Bayonne.

event; he died in 1574, at the early age of twenty four.

The court during this reign is said to have been extremely corrupt in consequence of the bad disposition of Catherine of Medicis, and the unprincipled Italians she kept about her.

Till now, the beginning of the year dated from Easter; but as that is a moveable feast, it was thought better to commence on the first of January, which was done by a proclamation.

## TALE XXXVIII.

### REIGN OF HENRY III. THE LEAGUE (1574).

HENRY the third, son of Henry the second, was duke of Anjou; he had been called by the Poles to reign over them; but on the death of his brother, preferring the crown of France, he secretly left Poland, hastened to Paris, and ascended the throne with the title of Henry III.

The character of this prince was ill calculated to calm the dissensions and jealousies which had so long agitated the kingdom. His morals were depraved, and, instead of seriously occupying his mind with the welfare of the nation, he abandoned himself to his pleasures amidst the most licentious young men of the age; following their advice and governing by

their caprice. The consequence was a confederation against such a government, by the catholics on one side, who were jealous of the influence of the duke of Guise, and Catherine of Medicis; and on the other side, the Protestants availed themselves of these divisions and demanded more security and greater indulgence than they yet enjoyed. The king of Navarre (afterwards Henry the fourth) soon perceived that he was an object of suspicion at the court; he quitted Paris and joined the protestant party, which in this critical moment was reinforced by an army from Germany. This rendered them so formidable that they soon obtained very favourable articles; and the Germans received a considerable sum of money on quitting France.

As the Protestants obtained indulgence, so the hatred of their adversaries increased, and finding the monarch more attentive to his pleasures than to their interest, they formed an association called **THE LEAGUE**. The duke of Guise was about to be named chief of this party; its aim was to overthrow the Protestants, and the members engaged themselves to execute their project by law, or by arms, without favour to any person whatever; declaring at the same time that every one who refused to join the association was a traitor to his country, and merited no protection. The party becom-

ing every day more formidable, and Guise being suspected of ambitious views, the king began to apprehend danger; he therefore convoked the States general at Blois, and was soon convinced, by the propositions there made, that his fears were not groundless. He therefore declared himself sole chief of the League, much to the disappointment of the ambitious Guise, who took all possible means of exciting hatred, both against the king, and Henry of Navarre; denouncing the latter as a propagator and supporter of heresy; and the former as an encourager of heretics.

The ambitious Guise, not wishing to declare himself openly against the king, persuaded the old cardinal de Bourbon, uncle of Henry IV., to place himself at the head of the League. He shortly did so, publishing a manifesto containing his own name as chief; and those of the Pope, the emperor, the king of Spain and a number of catholic princes as his supporters. Henry III. now found himself obliged to pursue the Protestants with more vigour than ever; they were ordered either to abjure their heresy, or to quit the kingdom in fifteen days.

The king of Navarre, on his side, published a proclamation threatening to retort on the catholics whatever treatment they should inflict on the Protestants. The country is again plunged into civil war, a conspiracy is formed



in the capital for the purpose of dethroning the king and giving the sovereign power to Guise.

The king, rousing at last from his lethargy, assembles his troops to punish the leaders of the conspiracy; he forbids Guise to enter Paris. The ambitious duke however, not only enters, he calls his party to arms; they barricade the streets, surround the troops, and Henry is obliged to seek safety in flight, leaving the duke in possession of the supreme power; and before the king could regain his dominion he was obliged to swear never to make peace or truce with the heretics, to exterminate heresy from the kingdom, and not to acknowledge, as heir to the crown, either a heretic, or a partisan or favourer of heretics: thus depriving Henry king of Navarre of the right of succession he had acquired by the death of the duke of Anjou, which made him presumptive heir to the throne.

The states general were soon after assembled at Blois, and the duke de Guise and the cardinal his brother were both assassinated there by some of the king's party. Paris is immediately in revolt, and Henry, seeing no other prospect of safety, joins the king of Navarre at Tours. They both march against the capital, arrive at St. Cloud where they encamp to prepare for the attack. A messenger arrived

soon after, saying he had an important communication to make to the king; he was introduced, and while Henry was reading the letter he had given him, the pretended messenger plunged a knife into his body. The cries of the king brought the guards who immediately fell on the assassin (*Jacques Clément*) and cut him in pieces.

## TALE XXXIX.

REIGN OF HENRY IV. (1589).

HENRY expired the next day, after having declared the king of Navarre his lawful successor. Henry the fourth could not however yet assume the government; this reverse of fortune had caused many of his supporters to abandon him; his army, reduced to six thousand men, was forced to retire towards Dieppe, pursued by the duke de Mayenne, brother of Guise, with more than four times the number.

Henry however, having rallied his troops, determined to take once more the offensive: he therefore marched again towards Paris and met his adversaries on the plain of Ivry near that city. At the moment of assault, Henry cried out to his soldiers, "*My children, I am your king; there is the enemy; let your stand-*

*ard be my white plume , you will always find it in the path of honor."*

The battle then commenced , and after a sanguinary struggle Henry IV. gained a complete victory. Immediately after this he laid siege to Paris , which being soon reduced to the greatest distress by internal commotion and want of provisions , was obliged to open its gates to the conqueror , who entered the capital in triumph (1594). An attempt was made to assassinate him , by a man named Jean Chatel , who declared , when interrogated , that he thought it a meritorious act to rid the world of a tyrant.

Henry IV. endeavoured to conciliate all parties ; but he soon found that the greater part of the nation was determined to maintain the catholic faith , and that it would be impossible to reign in security if he did not adopt it ; he therefore publicly renounced protestantism at St. Denis , and was soon acknowledged king of France.

Henry having been excommunicated by the Pope , it was necessary to obtain absolution before he could think of reigning in peace. This was an affair of some difficulty , penance was insisted on by His Holiness , and the mildest conditions that could be obtained were that the french ambassadors should submit to castigation by the hands of the Pope.

The protestants, in their turn, began to torment the king, demanding greater toleration than they yet enjoyed, and he was so beset by them in a journey through Brittany, that he thought it expedient to grant them the free exercise of their religion, and to place them upon an equal footing with his catholic subjects. These articles were published in a proclamation at Nantes, and it received the title of *THE EDICT OF NANTES*. We shall see that it did not fail to excite much rancour in the opposite party.

Fortunately for Henry IV., and for France, an honest, virtuous, and courageous man was found at court in the person of the duke of Sully; the king soon named him prime minister and had the happiness to find in him a frank and sincere friend.

Before Henry's accession to the throne he had married Margaret de Valois, but their tempers not agreeing he had long lived separate from her: he now solicited, and obtained a divorce; and having a mistress of whom he was very fond (Henriette d'Entragues), an intriguing and ambitious woman, she persuaded him to sign a promise of marriage. Henry shewed the deed to Sully, who, foreseeing the danger of such a union, had good sense and courage enough to tear it in pieces in his presence.

The king cried out in a rage, "You must be mad, Sully." — "I acknowledge it, sire," said the minister, "and I wish I were the only one in France." Sully immediately retired, expecting nothing less than to be disgraced; he was however, on the contrary, appointed grand-master of the artillery.

Soon after this (in 1600) Henry married Mary de Medicis who the next year gave him a son, afterwards Louis XIII.

Henry was extremely fond of his children and often partook in their juvenile amusements; being also very easy of access, he was one day surprised in a very curious position for a monarch. An ambassador suddenly entering his apartment found him crawling upon all four (hands and knees) with his children riding on his back. The ambassador appeared disconcerted; but Henry soon relieved him from his embarrassment by saying, "*Sir, are you a father?*" "I am, sire," replied the minister. "Then," said the king, "I need say no more."

Some disputes and troubles in Germany, in which the interest of France was compromised, and its tranquillity endangered, determined Henry to take the field at the head of his troops, to support the national honor. An army of forty thousand men was assembled and waited only their royal commander. The queen was very anxious to be crowned, and Henry

remained at Paris for that ceremony. The following day he left the palace in his carriage to go and visit Sully, when passing along the rue de la Ferronnerie, the way was stopped by some carts which prevented the king's coach from proceeding. At that moment an assassin named RAVAILLAC climbed up the side of the carriage and plunged a knife into Henry's heart.

Thus died the good Henry IV. in 1610, at the age of 57 years, after a reign of about 16 years, very stormy in the beginning, but calmer towards its close.

Henry's greatest ambition was to render his people happy, and consequently he was adored by them. He was an enemy to luxury, and frequently laughed at the nobles in their magnificent dresses, telling them that they carried their mills and their woods upon their backs.

Sully had, by his wise and upright administration, brought France to a state of prosperity hitherto unknown. Taxes were diminished, public debts paid, and yet the treasury contained sufficient money to answer any exigency. The capital was also greatly embellished during the reign of Henry IV. The Pont-Neuf was constructed; the gallery of the Louvre was built, and the canal de Briare was commenced for the purpose of uniting the Seine and the Loire.

## TALE XL.

REIGN OF LOUIS XIII. (1610).

THE Dauphin, eldest son of Henri IV., was but eight years and a half old when he succeeded his father on the throne of France, under the title of Louis XIII. Being too young to govern, the queen dowager, Marie de Medicis, was named regent.

She had brought with her from Italy, when she came to marry Henry, a lady named Leonore Galigai, who soon after was married to an Italian courtier called Concini : they were both very ambitious and intriguing, and soon acquired great influence over the regent. Concini, though no warrior, was, to the astonishment of the nation, elevated to the dignity of marshal of France, with the title of marechal d'Ancre; an honor which is generally bestowed as a reward of bravery and military glory.

This elevation rendered the marshal d'Ancre and his lady so haughty and repulsive that they were generally disliked. They had however gained such ascendancy at court that it was dangerous to offend them.

Sully, whose honesty and frankness rendered him odious at such a court, finding he

could render no service to the nation, retired and occupied himself in writing the memoirs and political maxims which have been transmitted to us under his name.

An alliance was formed with Spain by means of a double marriage between Elizabeth, the king's sister, with the son of Philip III., and of Louis himself with Ann of Austria.

This reign, like the preceding one, was troubled by civil wars between the catholics and protestants; the treasury was exhausted by the prodigality and ill advised measures of the government under the directions of the marshal, or rather of the marechale d'Ancre, by whose influence the ministry was changed, and the bishop of Luçon (Richelieu) was named secretary of state.

The enemies of the marshal d'Ancre became every day more numerous and more exasperated, and at length, one of them named Luynes, who was a great favorite of the king, opened his eyes to the shame of suffering his kingdom to be governed by foreigners, and of submitting to the absolute power that the queen dowager exercised over him.●

Louis, roused by these representations, gave orders to the captain of his body-guards to arrest the marshal. The order was soon executed, and he, shewing some signs of resistance, was killed by the guards on the bridge leading to the Louvre.



The marechale was soon after arrested and tried upon the ridiculous accusation of magic and witchcraft. The judge having asked her by what charm she had acquired such dominion over the queen-mother, she boldly replied, "*By the ascendancy that a powerful mind always obtains over a weak one.*" She was however condemned, executed and her body burnt.

The death of the marshal d'Ancre and his lady was such a severe blow for Marie de Medicis, that she retired from court to the castle of Blois, and united with the duke d'Epemon in a civil war against Louis. The Protestants availed themselves of these differences, and the kingdom was again torn by religious wars, in which the dissenters gained such important advantages that Louis was glad to make a peace by confirming the EDICT OF NANTES, and granting other indulgences.

Richelieu, bishop of Luçon, having contrived to arrange matters between Marie de Medicis and the king, obtained for himself a cardinal's hat, and a place in the privy council, where his influence soon after showed itself by the disgrace of his adversaries, and he at length became prime minister : but he was far from being a Sully. Ambition and intrigue seemed to be his ruling passions : jealous of the influence of Marie de Medicis over the king, he brought about a quarrel between them, and she was

obliged to quit the kingdom : he also caused a misunderstanding between Louis and his brother (the duke of Orleans), a prince who was generally beloved.

Richelieu was however an able minister, and France is indebted to him for many improvements and useful establishments, among which the royal academy stands conspicuous. His great ambition and unlimited power however caused him numerous enemies, and he was several times in danger of being assassinated. The numerous taxes that his administration imposed on the nation excited general discontent, and almost revolt, on the part of the people ; but Richelieu, either by force or intrigue ; kept them in submission.

In the year 1642 a formidable conspiracy almost succeeded in overthrowing him. A young man named Cinq-Mars, son of marshal d'Effiat, had obtained the place of master of the horse, and by flattery and unremitting attention to all the wishes and tastes of Louis had become quite a favourite with that monarch. Favourites are usually jealous of each other. Cinq-Mars resolved to overthrow Richelieu, and for that purpose united with a person named de Thou. Fortunately for the minister, who perceived his influence diminish as that of his adversary increased, he discovered a secret correspondence between Cinq-Mars and the court of Spain.

Richelieu, who was then very ill at Tarascon, immediately communicated the circumstance to the king : Cinq-Mars and his confidant de Thou were arrested, tried, condemned, and decapitated at Lyons. The dukes de Bouillon and Orleans were said to be implicated in this affair. Richelieu was however approaching his dissolution, and though extremely ill, he determined to show himself at court, and being unable to support the jolting of an ordinary carriage, he had a sort of litter made, and was carried in it by men, in this manner, from and to the magnificent palace which he had built ( the Palais-Royal ), but he did not long survive his victory over Cinq-Mars and de Thou. The illness with which he was afflicted, carried him off in less than a year after the execution of his adversaries. Previous to his death he made a present of his elegant palace to the king. There is to be seen among the pictures at the Palais-Royal, one where the cardinal is represented presenting the deed of gift to the monarch.

Whatever bad qualities Richelieu might have possessed, he has rendered great service to France by the encouragement he gave to literary and scientific men. We owe to him, as we have already said, the institution of the Academy ; the construction of the Luxemburg, the Sorbonne and the hospital of Val-de-Grace, also took place in this reign.

Louis XIII. expired the year following (1643). His mother Marie de Medicis died a short time before him, in a miserable exile at Cologne.

The government fell to Ann of Austria, widow of the late king, and the crown to her son who was not then five years old.

## TALE XLI.

EXTRAORDINARY LONG REIGN OF LOUIS XIV.,  
CALLED LOUIS THE GREAT (1643).

WHEN Louis XIV. ascended the throne of France, the situation of Europe was such as to menace the French with a turbulent reign.

The late king had named, in his will, a council of regency, placing the queen, his widow, at the head of it. She felt this as a sort of humiliation and determined to be sole and absolute regent. She applied to parliament, the king's will was declared *null*; she obtained all the power, and named for her first minister the cardinal Mazarin, an Italian by birth, possessing good abilities, great firmness and much ambition.

Whatever be a minister's qualities, he is sure to have enemies, because it is impossible to satisfy every body, and Mazarin being a foreigner was an additional cause of jealousy. The Spaniards thought that the minority of the

king, and the dissensions of parties in France offered a fair opportunity for invading that country. They did so, and laid siege to Rocroy; but a young hero, the duke d'Enghien (afterwards the great Condé), only twenty two years of age, led the french troops against the invaders and gained the celebrated battle of Rocroy. Soon after this he gained several other important victories, and among them that of Dunkirk which he took from the Spaniards. Philip IV. of Spain finding he could not govern the united provinces of the Netherlands, and his resources being exhausted, he made a treaty acknowledging their independence. As war had long been devastating Spain, Germany, France, and other European powers, they were all desirous of a peace, which, after much negotiation, was concluded and signed at Munster on the 24<sup>th</sup> of October 1648.

Almost at the same time a civil war broke out at Paris. Some acts of the minister Mazarine were considered oppressive, and the people, supported by the parliament, refused to submit. Several arrestations took place, which irritated the Parisians so much that they rose in all parts of the town, barricaded the streets, killed some soldiers and insisted on the liberation of the prisoners, which at last was granted.

This however did not terminate the dissen-

sions; on the contrary each party became more exasperated, and open rebellion was the consequence. The rebels were called *Frondeurs* because they are said to have thrown stones at their adversaries by means of *slings* which in french are called *frondes*. The other party was called Mazarins from the name of the minister.

This civil war became so violent as to oblige the regent to quit Paris with the young king. She went to St. Germain, accompanied by the prince de Conti, the dukes of Longueville, Beaufort, Vendome, Bouillon, and others of their party. — Condé, though dissatisfied with the government, joined the court party and blockaded the capital, where the parliament had raised an army. Several combats took place without any signal advantage to either side. At length a compromise was made, and the court returned to Paris; but the following year Mazarin, to whom Condé, the prince de Conti and the duke of Longueville had become formidable, had them arrested. He was however soon after obliged to liberate them, and, not thinking himself safe in France, he retired for some time to Cologne; still however directing the government. He returned to France with a small army and joined the regent and the king, who were wandering about in the provinces. They march upon Paris, and a battle

ensues in the faubourg St. Antoine : Turenne commanded the royalists or Mazarins; but the cannon of the Bastile soon forced them to retreat.

At length the king, finding the nation so exasperated against the minister, dismissed him; the Parisians then opened their gates, and the capital became once more tranquil.

The Spaniards had profited by the internal dissensions of the French, and had retaken Barcelona, Gravelines and Dunkirk.

A treaty of alliance was, about this time, concluded between France and England, which latter country was then governed by Cromwell. An english fleet was sent against Dunkirk, while an army, composed of french and english troops, attacked it on the land side; it was soon conquered and taken possession of by the latter. A peace was soon after concluded between the French and Spaniards, and to render it more durable, Philip IV. gave his daughter in marriage to Louis XIV.

The long celebrated Mazarin died in 1661, leaving to his heirs an immense fortune. Louis, who had long been only a puppet in the hands of that minister, was glad to be delivered from the yoke, and determined to take the reins of government in his own hands. Colbert was placed at the head of the finances, and rendered them more flourishing than they had

been for many years; commerce augmented, Dunkirk and Marseilles were declared free-ports, and soon filled with ships of all nations. Paris was much embellished at this time, the streets were paved and lighted, and the canal of Languedoc was begun for uniting the Ocean with the Mediterranean-sea. Literature was embellished by the names of Moliere, Racine and Boileau. This reign is too however long to be told in one tale; we will therefore take a little repose and recommence to morrow.

## TALE XLII.

### CONTINUATION OF THE REIGN OF LOUIS XIV.

PHILIP IV. of Spain dying in 1665 was succeeded by Charles II., then only four years old: some claims were made by France in behalf of the queen, wife of Louis XIV. and daughter of Philip. The spanish government resisted, and the marquis of Louvois, the french minister of war, began to make preparations for attacking Spanish Flanders. Louis led on his troops, and with Turenne for general, his arms were invincible. He soon took Charleroi, Ath, Tournai, Furnes, Courtrai, Douai, and Lille, garrisoned them with french



troops and employed the celebrated Vauban to construct new fortifications.

Immediately after this campaign Louis marched into Franche-Comté, which was then under the dominion of Spain ; and though it was the middle of winter, the whole province was conquered in less than a month.

The success of the french arms alarmed the neighbouring nations, England particularly, and Holland who trembled for her frontiers. These powers, united with Sweden, made such strong representations to Louis that he stopped his march, and a peace was concluded at Aix-la-Chapelle. Louis restored Franche-Comté, but kept Flanders. During the negotiations the dutch plenipotentiary was told to beware of Louis for that he would deceive him ; he replied, " I don't consider what he *would* do, but what he *can*."

This treaty having been forced from Louis, he resolved to break it on the first favourable opportunity ; and for that purpose endeavoured to gain over one of the parties which formed the triple alliance against him. England was the most important, and he succeeded in gaining her by means of the duchess of Orleans, who was sister to Charles II. then reigning. A pretence was easily found to complain of Holland, and Louis marched against it in 1672 with all his forces. The Dutch were not

prepared to resist such an overwhelming army, and the French took from them several important places. Fearing greater disasters, the States general determined to solicit a peace, though the prince of Orange strongly opposed that measure.

Peace was offered them, but on such humiliating conditions that it excited general indignation and drove them to desperation ; they cut the dams and inundated several places to prevent the approach of the enemy, who was thus not only prevented from advancing, but also compelled to retreat. The powers in the north of Europe, seeing the ambition of Louis, came to the assistance of Holland , and Spain soon followed their example.

With so many enemies it was impossible to keep the three provinces of Utrecht, Over-Ysel, and Gueldres, which had been taken : they were therefore ransomed and evacuated. The dutch fleet had also become very formidable, and had successfully resisted three attacks of the united fleets of England and France. Charles II. finding that he was only advancing the ambitious views of Louis XIV., and the English loudly declaiming against the war, made peace with Holland, on condition of receiving 300,000 pounds, about seven million and a half of franks.

Louis however having yet powerful resour-

ces, and such generals as Turenne and the great Condé, continued the war. The latter general attacked the prince of Orange near Mons; a desperate battle ensued, but neither party could claim a victory. Condé had three horses killed under him, and it is said that twenty five thousand men perished on the field. Turenne who commanded on the Rhine, performed prodigies, but was at length killed by a cannon ball at Salzbach, and the French were obliged to retreat. Louis himself commanded in the Netherlands; he took Condé, Bouchain, Valenciennes, Cambrai, Gand (*Ghent*) and Ypres.

The Dutch, having obtained some advantages, made a favorable peace with the French, without consulting the other powers, and Spain, thus losing a powerful ally, made also a treaty, by which France kept Franche-Comté and the principal towns that she had taken in Flanders. This led to a general peace; but Louis was so intoxicated by the glory he had acquired that he could not long remain inactive.

A fresh war broke out upon the Rhine: Strasbourg and Luxemburg were taken; and a truce for twenty years followed, by which Spain gave up the latter, and the emperor of Germany yielded the former to the French.

Louis now turned his mind to the naval force of his kingdom, augmented his fleet and

fortified the maritime towns of Dunkirk, Toulon, Brest and Rochefort. He attacked Algiers, Tunis and other piratical towns on the coast of Africa, obliged them to solicit quarter and to promise respect to the french flag. He then inflicted a terrible punishment on Genoa (*Gênes*) for having furnished ammunition to the african corsairs. The town was bombarded and almost reduced to a heap of ruins.

Not long after this Louis had the misfortune to lose his able minister Colbert. The Protestants had soon reason to lament his death; he had always protected them as good and loyal subjects while their only crime was worshipping the same God in a different manner from the catholics. By the death of Colbert they were exposed to the persecutions of the chancellor Le Tellier, and his son the marquis de Louvois. They were ordered to adopt the national religion, and those who did not were treated in the most cruel manner by dragoons who were sent to enforce the orders of government.

These measures not producing the desired effect, a still more violent one was employed. The famous Edict of Nantes, given by Henry IV., by which the liberty of conscience and of public worship was acknowledged, was revoked; the churches were destroyed; the protestant ministers banished, orders were

given to take the children of the Calvinists away from their parents, and to confide them to catholics. Emigration was forbidden upon pain of severe punishment; but in spite of menaces and precautions, thousands of industrious families found means of quitting the kingdom. The greatest part of them took refuge in England; among them were great numbers of silk-weavers, and from that time the silk manufacture has increased so much in that country that it now rivals, and in some branches surpasses that of France.

The celebrated Christine, queen of Sweden, said in some of her writings at that time *"France is at this moment like a sick person in the hands of unskilful doctors, who amputate her limbs to cure her of a malady which time, patience, and mild treatment would effectually overcome."*

An important event happened soon after this in England. James II. who was then king had favoured the catholics so much and endeavoured so continually to re-establish the dominion of the Romish church, that the English revolted, dethroned him and gave the crown to William III. prince of Orange, his son-in-law.

James took refuge in France, where Louis received him magnificently, raised an army and equipped a fleet, and endeavoured, but in

vain to re-establish him. Several battles were fought, in which the French showed great courage; particularly at that of the Boyne, in Ireland, where marshal Schomberg, who commanded them, was killed. James did not take an active part in endeavouring to recover his kingdom: he let others fight for him, while he amused himself; by which means he became despised, and lost all hope of being reinstated.

The sparks of war flew in all directions, and soon kindled violent flames against Louis. He had for enemies England, Holland, Spain, Savoy, nearly all Italy, and the greatest part of the German empire. Louis however maintained this unequal contest for some time: many bloody battles were the consequences, both in Europe and in the colonies, and at last a great fleet was assembled at La Hogue for the purpose of invading England.

This fleet was attacked and almost destroyed by the English, who, immediately after the victory, bombarded Dieppe, Havre, St. Malo, Calais and Dunkirk. This war became at length so ruinous to France that Louis found it necessary to bring about a peace. His first measure was to detach one of the allied powers from the confederation, and he succeeded with Victor Amédée, duke of Savoy, by restoring his dominions, and by marrying the duke of Bur-

gundy, son of the Dauphin, with Amédée's daughter, giving her a dowry of four millions of franks.

Louis then made a peace with the other powers, by restoring all his conquests, and acknowledging William III. as king of England. This was called the peace of Riswick.

Charles II. of Spain finding himself at the point of death, and having no children, bequeathed the crown of that country to the duke of Anjou, second son of the Dauphin of France. Charles dying soon after, the duke succeeded under the name of Philip V. This aggrandizement of the Bourbons excited the jealousy of Leopold, emperor of Germany, who sent an army of 30,000 men, under the command of prince Eugene, into Italy. James II., ex-king of England, died about this time at St. Germain; and Louis, though he had acknowledged William III., gave the title of king of England to James' son. The English immediately took arms, and William, though very infirm, prepared to take the field at their head; but a fall from his horse caused his death, at the age of 52. Ann Stuart succeeded him, and declared war against France. An army under the celebrated duke of Marlborough was sent to Flanders, where many battles were fought, particularly those of Hochstet and Spire, where the French acquired much glory

under Villars and Tallard. But their laurels were soon after snatched from them at Blenheim by Marlborough and Eugene. The allies then began to think of dethroning Philip V. of Spain : the English in 1704 attacked and took Gibraltar, which they have ever since kept. A formidable fleet of french and spanish vessels sent against it was entirely destroyed.

In 1706, marshal Villeroy, who commanded the french army in Flanders, consisting of 80,000 men, resolved to attack Marlborough at Ramillies ; he did so and in half an hour was totally defeated, losing twenty thousand men and nearly all Spanish Flanders. The allied french and spanish armies were equally unfortunate in Spain and Italy. These disasters were the more fatal as they were followed by a dreadful famine, which at once exhausted the resources of France, and the patience of the French.

Louis saw the absolute necessity of terminating the war, and sent the marquis de Torci to the Hague to negotiate ; but the demands of Marlborough, and of the prince Eugene were so humiliating that Louis could not accede to them. One condition being the dethronement of Philip V., Louis replied, "*Since I must fight, I would rather fight against my enemies than against my son.*"

The French determined to make another



effort to sustain the national honour. Villars, with about 60,000 men, was joined by marshal Boufflers, and they opposed the English, who had taken Tournai and were marching to besiege Mons. A sanguinary battle took place at Malplaquet, where fortune again favoured the allies. Marlborough gained the victory though it cost him 20,000 men.

Mons was taken, and those repeated defeats so destroyed the confidence of the French, that Louis found himself under the necessity of making another demand for peace. The most humiliating conditions were proposed by the allies; but in the interval marshal Villars gained an important victory over the English on the plains of Denain, which a little changed the tone of each party, and a peace was at length concluded. England kept Gibraltar and other places; the emperor obtained Spanish Flanders; the French also agreed to destroy and fill up the port of Dunkirk, which had cost them immense sums of money.

Louis, now in his 78<sup>th</sup> year, felt his end approaching; he regretted his passion for war, which, though it had acquired him great fame, had caused much misery to his people. When on his death-bed, seeing his attendants weeping, he said, "*Why do you weep? did you think me immortal?*"

He died on the 1<sup>st</sup> of September 1715, leav-

ing the crown to his great grand son the duke of Bourbon, only five years old.

The reign of Louis XIV. was remarkable on many accounts, and one circumstance excited great astonishment. A person who, by the great attention that was paid to him, appeared to be of high rank, was sent to prison, rigorously guarded, and his face concealed by an iron mask which he could not take off. He was confined many years in an island on the coast of Provence. It is said that he once endeavoured to make known the secret of his imprisonment, in the following manner. — He scratched upon a silver dish his name and situation, and profiting by a moment when he was alone, he threw the dish through the bars of his window towards the sea : it was soon after picked up by a fisherman, who not knowing how to read, carried the dish to the governor, hoping to be rewarded. Struck with astonishment, he asked the fisherman if he knew what was marked on the dish; the poor fellow replied that he could not read. "It is very fortunate for you," replied the governor; and giving him some money, sent him away.

Some time after this the prisoner was transferred to the Bastille at Paris, where he died after many years of solitary confinement. The secret of his identity was so well kept that it is,

even now, doubtful whether any one has discovered it.

Paris and its environs were considerably beautified during the long reign of Louis XIV. The hospital of Invalids was founded. The beautiful palace of Versailles was built; and the northern pavilion added to the Tuileries. The school of St. Cyr, for the education of girls, was founded in this reign under the protection of madame de Maintenon, whom Louis had privately married.

## TALE XLIII.

REIGN OF LOUIS XV. (1715).

THIS prince was only five years old at the death of Louis XIV., who, by his will, had named a council of regency, of which the duke of Orleans was to be president : but not satisfied with such restrictions, he demanded, and obtained, an absolute and sole regency, vested in himself.

The finances were at this time in such an exhausted state, that the government was greatly embarrassed. Spain made some hostile movements in alliance with Charles XII. of Sweden, against France and England; but Charles being killed in Norway and the spa-

nish fleet destroyed by the English, Philip was glad to ask a peace. Louis being now of age, the regency ceased, and the duke of Orleans became first minister.

Soon after this, another, and very unexpected war, broke out among the european powers concerning the crown of Poland, which was elective. One Stanislaus Leczinski was elected; but the emperor Charles VI. was dissatisfied, and insisted on a fresh election in favour of the elector of Saxony. Stanislaus, being related to Louis, naturally expected support from France; he was however so severely attacked by the Russians that he was obliged to fly in disguise. The war continued between the emperor and Louis, who had for allies the duke of Savoy, the king of Sardinia and the king of Spain. England and Holland remained neuter.

Being pressed on all sides, and having lost many places, the emperor made a peace advantageous to the allies; but Stanislaus was not reinstated. This was called the treaty of Vienna.

About two years after this, the emperor Charles VI. died; he was the last of the house of Austria which had occupied the imperial throne more than 300 years.

By virtue of the Pragmatic Sanction the empire descended to Marie Thérèse, eldest daughter of Charles; she accordingly ascended the throne, observing that almost all the powers

had guaranteed the Pragmatic Sanction ; but prince Eugene, who saw their jealousy and envy, said that a hundred thousand men was better than a hundred thousand treaties.

At length the war was commenced by Frederick II. of Prussia, and France was soon drawn into it, contrary to the wish of cardinal Fleury the minister. The war became bloody, obstinate and general, and the queen Marie Thérèse was reduced to a deplorable state ; her perils however served to increase her energy, and inspire her friends with ardour. She received pecuniary assistance from England and Holland, though they had not declared in her favour. In 1743 cardinal Fleury died and Louis was obliged to take a more active part in the government than he had hitherto done. He admitted the marshal de Noailles to the council, and soon gave him command of an army to stop the progress of the English, who now showed themselves, and were marching towards Germany to assist the queen.

He met them near Dettingen on the Maine ; a terrible battle ensued, but some false manœuvres deprived the marshal of the victory he had anticipated.

The cause of Marie Thérèse now began to thrive ; the king of Prussia made peace with her, and being freed from so formidable an enemy, her troops menaced the french frontier,

passed the Rhine and penetrated as far as Lorraine. Louis XV. marched against them; but Frederick, having once more declared war against her, prince Charles, who commanded the imperialists, was obliged to repass the Rhine in haste, to drive the Prussians from Bohemia.

About this time Louis was attacked by a dreadful illness which confined him some time at Metz; but as soon as he recovered he took the field, and fought the memorable battle of Fontenay, against the English commanded by the duke of Cumberland. The British advanced with such intrepidity that nothing could resist them; the French were repulsed at all points, and the battle nearly lost, when a sudden and simultaneous attack of artillery, and a charge of the king's household troops changed the fate of the day: the English retired in good order, having lost 9,000 men.

Louis would then have made a peace, but neither Austria nor England were pacifically disposed. The war then extended itself into Italy, where the french army experienced many disasters. François de Lorraine, the husband of Marie Thérèse, was elected emperor about 1745; and the king of Prussia made a peace with her, and being released from so formidable a foe she reinforced her army in Italy and drove the French out of that country.

To counterbalance this, they gained several important victories in Flanders. Brussels was taken by marshal of Saxe; Antwerp by Louis himself; Mons by the prince de Conti; and Namur by the count de Clermont. The almost impregnable fort of Bergen-op-Zoom was also taken, after a siege of three weeks. Maestricht soon after fell, and the allies, becoming alarmed, demanded and obtained a peace, which was signed at Aix-la-Chapelle, all parties restoring, with very few exceptions, the conquests they had made.

The french navy had been so much neglected during this war that it was at one time reduced to a single ship of the line; the consequence was that the English, whose vessels covered the seas, almost ruined the commerce of France.

Some disputes arose soon after between France and England, concerning the frontiers of Canada, and in 1755 a war was commenced by the English attacking the french merchant-ships, of which they soon took more than three hundred. The war spread rapidly, each party obtained allies. Prussia attached herself to England; but Austria joined France.

Great exertions were now made by the French to re-establish their navy, and some advantages were obtained at sea; Hanover was taken, and the king of Prussia was defeated at Prague by the Austrians; but he soon

recovered himself by an important victory at Rosbac. During this time, the English took from France nearly all her american colonies. England was at that time governed by the able and persevering William Pitt, earl of Chatham, a constant enemy to the French.

Charles III. of Spain having joined France, the English attacked and took the richest of the spanish colonies. Cuba, the Philippine islands, Manilla and the Havannah, with an immense booty, fell into their hands.

This disastrous war was terminated by the treaty of Paris in 1763; by which England retained Canada and other considerable places in America.

A peace was also concluded between the northern powers, each abandoning the conquests made.

During the war, in the year 1757, an attempt was made to assassinate Louis, by a fanatic named DAMIENS, who was executed with all the severities imposed by the law against regicides.

Soon after this, an act of parliament was passed for expelling the Jesuits from France, as they had already been from Portugal, Spain and a part of Italy. Louis, now at the age of sixty four, was attacked by the small pox, and shortly carried off, after a reign of sixty years.



Among the useful establishments of this reign, the Military School stands very conspicuous.

## TALE XLIV.

### EVENTFUL REIGN OF LOUIS XVI. (1774).

This unfortunate monarch ascended the throne on the death of his grand-father May 10 1774. He was then nearly twenty years of age, and the beginning of his reign appeared propitious. The pain of death, for desertion, was abolished, and a great number of public works commenced. The finances were however in such an exhausted state that even the most rigorous economy in the administration, was not sufficient to restore them. M. Necker, a very able financier and banker, was appointed minister of that department; but notwithstanding his ability and his efforts, he failed to re-establish the treasury.

In 1778, a war broke out between England and her american colonies. The English, suspecting that the French gave assistance to their enemies, attacked a french vessel; she shewed herself however a match for her adversary; this at once decided France to declare war against England and to form an alliance with the Americans. The war was sanguinary on all sides: many

naval combats took place between the french and english fleets, two of which deserve particular notice. The first was off Ushant, between a french squadron commanded by M. d'Orvilliers, and an english one under admiral Keppel. After a severe fight the English profited by the night to escape; Keppel was brought to a court martial and disgraced for having retreated.

The next maritime affair was a terrible one : the united french and spanish fleets, assisted by some immense floating batteries, attacked Gibraltar, for the purpose of shutting the English from the Mediterranean-sea. The governor, general Elliot, however peppered them so severely with red hot balls that the batteries, and several of the ships were destroyed, and the rest obliged to retreat. The English obtained also an important naval victory in an engagement between count de Grasse and admiral Rodney. But the defeats of their land forces, by the allied french and american troops, more than counterbalanced those advantages, and a peace was made by which the Americans obtained their independance and took the title of the UNITED STATES.

During this war the state of the finances became more embarrassed. Necker had been obliged to have recourse to loans, thus creating a national debt; to pay the interest of which it

was necessary to increase the taxes. This caused great discontent, and he was superseded in his office by a M. de Calonne. This minister declared that, without some greater powers than the minister then possessed, it would be impossible to remedy the evil.

A land-tax was then proposed on the estates of the nobility and clergy; but the parliament having rejected it, the king held a convocation of ministers and members of parliament at which he presided on his throne, and ordered the act to be inscribed. These assemblies were called *lits de justice* \*.

The parliament of Paris signed a protest against the measure, and soon after nearly all its members were exiled. This caused such general indignation that the whole country demanded a convocation of the states-general. The minister Necker was recalled, and the states assembled at Versailles on the 5<sup>th</sup> of May 1789. The debates were long, violent and indecisive; the nation became impatient, and Louis ordered the members to separate, and discuss in different chambers. The deputies of the *Tiers-État* (representatives of the people) assembled in the hall of the fives-court (*Jeu de*

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\* Une femme ayant demandé à Fontenelle qu'est-ce que c'était qu'un lit de justice: « Madame, répondit-il, c'est un lit où la justice dort. »

paume), and being joined by some members of the two other states (the nobility and clergy), they swore never to separate till they had given a constitution to France. The court was forced to accede; the three states reunited, and took the name of *National Assembly*.

Several unfavourable rumours were then spread. One that the king was about to quit France; another that he was surrounding Paris with troops. The people, thus excited, rose on the 14<sup>th</sup> of July against the government, attacked and took the Bastile (a state prison), formed a national guard, and adopted the tri-coloured flag.

At the news of this insurrection, many of the nobility and clergy took flight. The king went to the Hôtel-de-Ville, and endeavoured to calm the people by putting the national cockade in his hat. This had some effect; but the people learning that on the 1<sup>st</sup> of October, at a banquet given by the body-guards at Versailles, the cockade had been trampled under foot, and invectives pronounced against the National Assembly, they immediately formed themselves in armed battalions, proceeded to Versailles, forced the palace, killed several of the body-guards, and menaced the royal family with death, if they did not immediately return to Paris.

Louis then presented himself with his family

in the balcony, promised to accompany them to the capital, and the procession set forward soon after, followed by the members of the National Assembly. These events destroyed the public credit and confidence so much, that ready money became excessively scarce. To remedy, in some measure, this misfortune, the estates of the clergy were appropriated to the nation; and a paper money called *assignats* was established.

In 1790 took place the FEDERATION OF assembly of all the troops in the Champ de Mars for the purpose of taking the civil oath to maintain the rights of man, and of citizens. The National Assembly made great alterations in the ecclesiastical laws, which caused much discontent among the clergy, and excited considerable fears for the religion. New societies were daily forming at Paris, loudly proclaiming their detestation for monarchy, and their intentions of overturning it. Count Mirabeau, and even the duke of Orleans, had given their countenance to these meetings, perhaps hoping to have sufficient influence to prevent their fury from going too far: but the people, like a horse that once takes fright and feels his power, scorn the hand that would stop, or even guide them. The popular opinions, excited by the press, manifested themselves with so much violence that the king, convinced he was

no longer safe in France, resolved to retire secretly into Germany; but the flight was conducted with so little prudence, that he was arrested at Varennes, brought back to Paris and deprived of his royal functions. Thousands of French of all classes, but particularly the nobles and clergy, quitted France in terror; and the foreign powers prepared to invade the country.

Louis having refused his sanction to some acts of the Legislative Body, and being accused of inviting a foreign invasion, was attacked in the Tuileries on the 10<sup>th</sup> of August by the Marseillais, and a great number of the inhabitants of the faubourg St. Antoine, armed with cannon, muskets, etc. The Swiss-guards defended the palace with great courage, and the king sought a refuge in the body of the National Assembly. Three days after, the royal family were sent prisoners to the Temple.

The foreign armies were already in France and advancing fast upon the capital. An army, hastily assembled, marched against the Prussians and compelled them to recross the Rhine. The Austrians, who were advancing from Belgium, were defeated at Jemmapes in 1792, and obliged also to retire. Soon after this an assembly called the National Convention decreed that monarchy should be abolished; and declared that France was a

republie. On the 3<sup>1</sup> of December it was also decreed, that Louis should be arraigned at the bar of the assembly, to be tried upon several accusations prepared against him. On the 11<sup>th</sup> the trial began. Louis pleaded not guilty to all the charges, and asked for counsellors to defend him, messieurs Target and Tronchet.

The former declined the responsability; but M. Lamoignon de Malesherbes offered his services and they were accepted. The trial finished on the 17<sup>th</sup> of January 1793, on which day Louis XVI. was condemned to death, by a majority of five votes

On the 20<sup>th</sup>, Santerre, accompanied by the minister of justice, went to the Temple and read the sentence to Louis, and told him to prepare for execution on the next day. Accordingly, on the 21<sup>st</sup>, he was conducted to the guillotine in the place Louis XV., where the egyptian monument now stands: he began to address the multitude, but the beating of drums prevented his words being heard, except those, "*Frenchmen, I die innocent, and I hope that my death....*"—He was then placed on the block, the axe fell and the unfortunate Louis XVI., at the age of 38, after a reign of 18 years, ceased to exist. He was the 32<sup>nd</sup> king of the third race.

On the 16<sup>th</sup> of October, the same year, Marie-Antoinette, the widow of Louis XVI., was also

beheaded. At this epoch, the dauphin, who is now spoken of as Louis XVII., was only nine years old. He was confined in prison, and, it is said, treated with the greatest cruelty, and soon died of grief and ill treatment. Since that time several impostors have endeavoured to impose themselves on the nation as the real Louis XVII.

## TALE XLV.

### THE REPUBLIC.

THE monarchy being destroyed, France was declared a republic. Ambitious men, of all classes and of all parties, sought to govern, and most of them became successively tyrants and victims.

Thousands were slaughtered on the scaffold, and by the populace; for in those days of anarchy, to be suspected inimical to the despot of the moment, was a death warrant. Houses were pillaged under different pretexts, and there was no longer any safety, either of person or of property; consequently thousands of families quitted the country, carrying with them all the property they could; others concealed their money; all confidence was destroyed, and though emigration was forbidden on pain of death, many continued to emigrate.



Those of the emigrants who possessed talents found on these occasions the great superiority of learning over riches ; they were enabled to gain an independant livelihood by teaching what they knew ; and among many examples of the kind, we have the illustrious one of the then young duke of Orleans, now Louis Philippe I.

The violent agitation which reigned in France caused much uneasiness among the neighbouring kingdoms, whose monarchs, fearing the contagion of democratic principles, armed against that unhappy country, which was at the same time a prey to all the horrors of civil war ; particularly in la Vendée, where the royalists had raised a considerable army. Violent measures were taken by the opposite party ; a proclamation denounced death against any one who should propose the re-establishment of royalty, or the dissolution of the National Convention (*the then existing government*). The foreign powers invaded France, but though the French were divided among themselves, the greater part of them united against the invaders and repelled them, though not without great difficulty and loss ; of which several french towns still feel the effects and bear the marks. Valenciennes had been taken by siege, and Toulon had been delivered up to the English. About this time a remarkable assassination took place at Paris ; it was that of

Marat, one of the most violent and most sanguinary demagogues of the day. He was killed by a beautiful young woman of Caen, who, having heard of his atrocities, travelled to the capital for the purpose of ridding the country of such a tyrant. She executed her project, and suffered for it on the scaffold.

We have already said that Toulon was in the hands of the English. This is a port so important to France that the greatest exertions were made to regain it; and it was upon this occasion that NAPOLEON BONAPARTE, by his skill and bravery, drew upon him the attention of France, and laid the foundation of his imperial throne.

He was a native of Corsica, an Island in the Mediterranean-sea : he had received his military education in France, and served her with the greatest zeal and success. He was rapidly promoted to the rank of general in chief of the french forces, and commanded with such ability and success, that his name alone inspired the army with almost invincible courage. He conquered Italy, and the greater part of Germany, after which he menaced England with invasion, and for that purpose assembled a numerous army at Boulogne; but instead of crossing the Channel, he led his soldiers to Egypt, where they gained some important victories, though the fleet which had transported them

was destroyed by the english admiral Nelson.

While Bonaparte was in Egypt, 1798, he heard that some of the members of the Directory, jealous of his glory, were intriguing against him. He therefore returned to Paris, went to St. Cloud, where the Directory was sitting, entered the hall with some grenadiers, and dissolved the meeting by force. A consular government was then formed, composed of NAPOLEON, SIXTES and ROGER-DUCOS. The two latter were soon replaced by Lebrun and Cambacérès. The presidency was given to Napoleon, who was soon after named first consul for ten years, and then for life.

The french government having about this time, 1801, assumed an appearance of stability, a treaty of peace was agreed to by England; it was however but of short duration, and the two countries were soon at war again with more hatred than before. England excited the continental powers against France; but the victorious armies of Napoleon destroyed the coalition. Holland, Italy, Spain, Germany and Prussia were conquered, and the brothers of Bonaparte were placed on the thrones of the three former. It would exceed the limits of an abridged history, to relate all the battles which led to such immense conquests; we will mention some of the most important of those where the French covered themselves with everlast-


ing glory ; they are MARENGO, LODI , PONT D'ARCOLLÉ , IENA , AUSTERLITZ , ULM , etc. , etc.

Bonaparte's glory excited great jealousy among ambitious men , and particularly among the partisans of the Bourbon family. Several conspiracies were formed to assassinate him, one of which nearly proved fatal. It was the infernal machine , a butt like those of the water-carriers, filled with combustibles , and fired at the corner of the street St. Nicaise as Bonaparte was passing to go to the Opera. Several houses were nearly destroyed, and about twenty persons killed or wounded by the explosion ; but fortunately for Napoleon his coachman was driving very fast, and was beyond reach of the machine before it exploded.

## TALE XLVI.

### THE EMPIRE.

BONAPARTE being now firmly placed at the head of the french government , conceived the idea of seating himself on the vacant throne of France. He was the more desirous of doing this as Louis XVIII. had written to him , demanding the restitution of it. Napoleon answered him, that to obtain it , he must march over the dead bodies of 800,000 soldiers. He was



proclaimed emperor of the French on the 18<sup>th</sup> of May 1804.

It was about this time that the duke d'Enghien, a member of the Bourbon family, was seized in Germany, beyond the limits of France, by the orders of Napoleon. He was conducted to the prison of Vincennes and there shot in one of the ditches at night, on a charge of conspiring against the life of Bonaparte.

Napoleon, having by his victories made peace upon his own conditions with several of the continental powers, was naturally recognized emperor by them. England however refused to acknowledge him : she declined a proposition sent by Bonaparte to king George the Third, to enter into negotiations for a peace; and still further excited the northern powers against the ambitious views of Napoleon and the gigantic power of France.

The emperor then determined on invading England with an overwhelming force, and went to Boulogne to assemble the army and navy. Some unforeseen circumstances prevented the fleets arriving in time, and Napoleon was compelled to abandon the project. He then marched against the Austrians; took Ulm and 30,000 prisoners who had retrenched themselves in it. He then advanced to Vienna, which opened its gates to him. A strong reinforcement of Russians however having arrived, command-

ed by the emperor Alexander ; Bonaparte saw that a desperate battle would follow ; it did so : it was that of Austerlitz, where the french army covered itself with imperishable glory. They took more than 19,000 prisoners, killed more than 10,000 ; captured forty standards, twenty generals ; and a hundred and twenty pieces of cannon. The column in the place Vendôme is made of the cannon taken during this campaign.

Soon after this a peace was concluded at Presbourg between the French, the Austrians and the Russians. Bonaparte then returned to Paris.

As a drawback upon the glory of this campaign, Napoleon received news of the destruction of the combined french and spanish fleets at Trafalgar. The french admiral Villeneuve and one rear-admiral were taken, and two rear-admirals killed. Admiral Nelson, who commanded the english squadron, was mortally wounded in the action and died immediately after the victory.

The defeat of the french fleet neutralized, in a great measure, the effects which the campaign of Austria would otherwise have produced on England, and Napoleon made overtures of peace to that country ; but they were indignantly refused. Prussia now declared against France. Bonaparte marched against them ; gained the important victory of IENA, where

more than 30,000 prisoners were taken ; and the french army marched triumphantly on to Berlin, of which they took possession in a fortnight after the battle of Iena.

Napoleon then marched on to Warsaw, capital of Poland, forcing the Russians to evacuate that country. This victorious campaign led to the peace of Tilsitt between France , Russia and Prussia ; and to a conference of the three monarchs in that town. Bonaparte then returned to Paris, and the court of the Tuileries became one of the most brilliant in Europe. Soon after this, the French marched into Spain where they gained some important victories over the Spaniards and English ; but the cabinet of London having once more decided the Austrians to arm against France , Napoleon marched again triumphantly to Vienna. It was in this campaign that the French gained the celebrated victories of ESSLING and WAGRAM on the 22<sup>nd</sup> of May and the 17<sup>th</sup> of July 1809.

Peace was once more concluded between France and Austria, and Bonaparte then invaded the territories of the Pope. The Holy Father protested against the violation and excommunicated the french emperor. Nevertheless the state of Rome was annexed to the french empire, and the Pope Pius VII. was *invited* to visit France , and to take up his residence at Fontainebleau, which he failed not

to do. Bonaparte now turned his attention to Spain and Portugal where the war was carried on with great vigor, by the English, Spaniards and Portuguese, against the French.

The english general Moore, having been defeated and killed, at Corunna, general Wellesley (now the duke of Wellington) was appointed to the command of the allied troops in the Peninsula, which country was afflicted with a sanguinary and protracted war. Many of the principal towns were alternately taken and retaken. About this time, 1810, Bonaparte divorced his wife, the empress Josephine, and soon after married the archduchess Maria-Louisa, daughter of the emperor of Austria. The war in the Peninsula was obstinately prosecuted on both sides, and, though the French gained several important victories, they were at length so severely beaten at Salamanca that they never recovered themselves.

When the french power dominated in Spain, Napoleon placed his brother Joseph Bonaparte on the throne of that kingdom; but after the defeat at Salamanca he was obliged to abandon the country. It was marshal Marmont who commanded the french forces on that memorable day, and the allies were commanded by lord Wellington. The french general was wounded and obliged to quit the field, after which the enemy pushed on with such irresist-



tible violence that the french army was obliged to retreat. Louis Bonaparte, also a brother of Napoleon, who had placed him on the throne of Holland, was about this time compelled to abdicate.

On the 20<sup>th</sup> of January 1811, the empress Maria-Louisa gave birth to a son : this event gave great joy to Napoleon, whose most ardent desire was to establish firmly the fourth dynasty on the french throne. The title of king of Rome was given to young Napoleon ; and Bonaparte was now in the zenith of his glory. Towards the end of this year, he complained to the court of Russia that the english vessels were permitted to enter the russian ports, and received a protection inconsistent with the amity existing between France and that country. The evasive answers that Bonaparte received on this subject gave him a pretext for war. He commenced it with the most brilliant prospects. He entered Russia with an army of 600,000 men, and an immense train of artillery ; the troops of ten nations marched under the banners of France, and victory traced a path for them direct to Moscow, the ancient capital of Russia, which was, at that time, called Moscovy.

Here the victorious career of Napoleon Bonaparte terminated. He had taken up his residence in the Kremlin, the palace of the Czars of Moscow ; intending to winter his army in

the town. The Russians however, in order to drive them out, made the dreadful sacrifice of their ancient capital. It was fired in several parts, and notwithstanding the exertions of the French to extinguish the flames, it was soon reduced to a heap of ruins, except the Kremlin and a few other buildings.

Bonaparte still entertained hopes of being able to pass the winter there; but he deceived himself, and caused the destruction of the finest army that Europe perhaps ever saw. Moscow no longer offered protection or supplies. The Russians and Cosacks intercepted the provisions; and harrassed the troops; killing great numbers of them without risking a general action. A retreat was therefore decided on; and this army, lately so victorious, so invincible, quitted the ruins of Moscow on the 19<sup>th</sup> of October 1812; Bonaparte having previously given orders to blow up the Kremlin.

The weather, which had been till then uncommonly mild, suddenly changed, and a russian winter commenced in its greatest rigor. The retreat of the french army was the most disastrous that the annals of war ever presented. Unaccustomed to the severities of a northern winter, the soldiers died by thousands on the roads. They were so closely followed by the enemy that they could take no repose. Frequently attacked, though seldom beaten,

the army diminished daily, so that Bonaparte saw that, without reinforcements, it was in danger of being annihilated. He therefore determined to hasten to Paris and to endeavour to raise a sufficient force to undertake another campaign. He quitted the army on the 5<sup>th</sup> of December, leaving the command to the king of Naples. The thermometer then marked 26 degrees below zero, a degree of cold never experienced in France. The remains of the army continued its dreadful retreat, reduced at last to less than 10,000 men.

Bonaparte arrived at Paris, exposed the perilous situation of affairs, and demanded immediate reinforcements to the amount of 250,000 men, which were voted by the senate, and the roads of Germany were covered with recruits marching to reinforce the remains of his army. Prussia now formed an alliance with the emperor of Russia; and Louis XVIII. published a manifesto, containing his legitimate claims to the throne of France. Napoleon having sent his reinforcements forward, and named the empress regent of the empire, and his brother Joseph president of the regency, left Paris for Erfurt, to take the command of his newly raised army.

During this time the war raged in the Peninsula: the French had gained several important battles; but were at last completely de-

feated at Vittoria, where Joseph Bonaparte was near being made prisoner. The loss of this battle obliged the French to retreat towards the Pyrenees. On hearing of these disasters, Napoleon dispatched marshal Soult to endeavour to re-establish things in Spain, but he was only able to prolong the resistance.

Bonaparte recommenced his campaign in the north in May 1813, and gained an important victory at Lutzen and another at Dresden, where Moreau, formerly one of his generals, and who had joined the allies, was killed. The victory at Dresden was brilliant; but it was the setting sun of Bonaparte's glory. The allies continually receiving reinforcements compelled the French to retreat to Leipsick. An armistice had been asked, and terms of peace proposed by the allies; but the conditions were too degrading to France, and the negotiation was broken off. The battle of Leipsic, so dreadful and so fatal to France, was fought on the 18<sup>th</sup> of Oct. 1813. It was called the battle of Nations, and the fate of Europe seemed to depend on it. The allies were superior in numbers to the French; they were reinforced by fresh troops, not fatigued by continual fighting, and besides this, a body of Saxons in the french service went over to the enemy with all their artillery. Bernadotte advanced with the swedish troops against his

former master. This sanguinary battle was suspended by the arrival of night, and Bonaparte finding it impossible to resist such overwhelming numbers, commanded a retreat. He had ordered a mine to blow up the bridge over the Elster, to retard the allies in their pursuit : the order was unfortunately executed before the rear-guard of the French had passed. This caused the loss of 12,000 men, and of prince Poniatowski; who plunged into the river at the head of his division, and sunk, to rise no more. The French, no longer able to act on the defensive, retreated towards their own frontier, followed and harassed by the enemy; they however gained an important victory at Hanau; and if they had not, the whole army would have been lost.

Bonaparte now saw that France would be invaded; he therefore crossed the Rhine at Mayence, and used his utmost efforts to animate the departments, and to prepare a vigorous resistance. The allies now concentrated their forces and organized their plans of invasion. On the 1<sup>st</sup> of January 1814 they crossed the Rhine and entered France at several points. About this time Ferdinand VII., king of Spain, who had been long detained in France, was permitted to return to his country, having engaged to cause the united English and Spaniards to retire from the french frontier;

which however he did not effect, and France was soon invaded on that side.

The allies directed their march towards Paris. Bonaparte and his best generals marched against them. The french soldiers never showed more courage, nor Napoleon more skill, than in this campaign. Several battles were fought; one particularly at Brienne where the emperor had received his education. The engagement was terrible, the town was almost reduced to ruins, and the enemy compelled to retreat. Being however soon reinforced, they advanced again; the French evacuated Brienne, and a conference was proposed to the allies at Chatillon. The conditions however offered by them were considered too humiliating; Bonaparte rejected them, saying that France would rise in mass against her invaders, and that he should drive them before him. The event proves that he deceived himself. The enemy continued to over-run France, and to advance on the capital; but not with impunity: the french army performed prodigies of valour; frequently arresting their progress and compelling them to retreat: the battles of Château-Thierry, Vaux-Champs, Montmirail and Montereau shewed that the french army had lost nothing of its bravery. The engagement at the latter town was dreadful; the French gained a complete victory, and drove the allies from their po-

sitions to a considerable distance in full retreat.

It is said that Bonaparte remarked, during this battle, that some of his generals did not second him with their accustomed ardor. He reproached them with their infidelity, threatened one with a court martial, and another with dismissal. The allies were so disconcerted by the defeat at Montereau that they were some time before they began to act again on the offensive; however they reunited and marched on towards the capital.

Discouragement now became visible among many of the officers, and, which was still more fatal to Napoleon, intrigue began to sap his power. A nation divided against itself becomes an easy prey to a foreign enemy. The persons attached to the Bourbon dynasty began to acquire influence, and failed not to profit by it. Napoleon, now in the rear of the allies, learned that their advanced guards were marching rapidly to Paris. He had hoped that they would not have risked so dangerous an experiment; or that they would be attacked in front, and that he should be able to cut off their retreat: but fortune had abandoned him and his friends, and left them a prey to misfortune and infidelity.

The invading army arrive at length in view of Paris, take possession of its heights, and







*Inaugurated the 28<sup>th</sup> July 1833. (Page 379)*

commence the siege. The whole national-guard assemble and demand twenty thousand muskets to defend the city; but they are told that there are not any. They armed themselves with whatever they could find, and rushed to the heights, where, on the 30<sup>th</sup> of March, at seven in the morning, a sanguinary engagement commenced. Montmartre, Pantin, Romainville were witnesses of the courageous, but useless efforts of the Parisians to save their capital. The pupils of the Polytechnic school fought with the greatest intrepidity at the butte St. Chaumont; but having exhausted their ammunition, they were compelled to abandon the defence. Joseph Bonaparte and the duke of Raguse commanded the troops, and the latter went to Joseph, told him that it was impossible to prolong the defence with any probability of success, and asked permission to treat with the enemy for a capitulation. He obtained it, and Paris was delivered up to the allies, who entered it in triumph on the 31<sup>st</sup> of march 1814.

Napoleon was at Fontainebleau, where he soon learned the disasters; and at first thought of making a desperate attempt on Paris; he was however soon convinced that it was too late. He then offered to abdicate in favour of his son; but was told that he must renounce, both for himself and his family, all pretensions to the

throne of France. He did so, and the isle of Elba was granted him in sovereignty.

His departure was fixed for the 20<sup>th</sup> of April. He wished to see Maria-Louisa and his son, but was prevented. They were sent off to Vienna. The ex-empress Joséphine was at Malmaison; by the treaty of capitulation a million of franks was granted for her annual income: she was visited by the allied sovereigns; but she did not long survive the misfortunes of her late husband. She died at the latter end of May 1814, and the emperor Alexander did her remains the honor of attending the funeral by proxy.

Bonaparte took an affecting leave of his old and faithful companions in arms, in the courtyard of the palace of Fontainebleau; got into a carriage with general Bertrand, and set off, accompanied by a few friends, and the commissioners of the allied powers, who were to conduct him out of France. On the road Napoleon experienced different receptions according to the opinions of the inhabitants of the various towns through which he passed. At length they arrived at Fréjus, and on the morning of the 28<sup>th</sup>, the late emperor of France quitted its shores for ever, as it was thought.

The allied sovereigns having determined on re-establishing the Bourbon dynasty, and the Dauphin, son of Louis XVI., being dead, Louis-

Stanislaus-Xavier, brother of Louis XVI., was declared king, under the title of Louis XVIII. He was then in England, but immediately embarked, and entered Paris on the 3<sup>rd</sup> of May 1814, in an open carriage, accompanied by the duchess d'Angoulême, daughter of the unfortunate Louis XVI. and Marie-Antoinette. The prince de Condé, the father of him whose sudden death has lately caused much sensation at Paris, was also in the carriage. Thus the Bourbons were once more on the throne of France, and a treaty of peace was concluded between the allies, and that country, by which it was reduced to its limits of 1792.

The allies, and particularly the Austrians were extremely humiliated by the appearance of the column in the place Vendôme. It was made of the cannons taken from them, and surmounted by the statue of the monarch and general by whom they had so often been vanquished. The greatest influence was therefore exerted to have it demolished. A compromise was however made, and the statue only was taken down. This was not accomplished without great difficulty; and it is said that when the statue came to the ground a paper was found in it containing the following words: "*Né pouvant s'élever jusqu'à moi, ils m'ont abaissé jusqu'à eux.*"

The statue now on the column is a new one;

it was elevated in July 1833 and inaugurated on the 28<sup>th</sup> of the same month, being the third anniversary of the revolution of 1830.

After such convulsions, it can scarcely be supposed that the reign of Louis XVIII. was very tranquil. A new form of constitution called the Constitutional Charter, was enacted as a guarantee of public liberty; but so many different interests were opposed to each other, that it was impossible to conciliate all parties. The emigrants who had preserved their attachment to the Bourbon, and returned with them, were naturally favoured by them; and the men who had rendered services to France under Napoleon conceived themselves neglected, or badly rewarded; each party provoked the other, and mutual hatred was the consequence. During this time the allied sovereigns were holding a congress at Vienna for the purpose of arranging the political affairs of Europe. They learned the state of France, and that numbers of Frenchmen loudly expressed their attachment to Napoleon and their regret for his fall. This gave rise, it is said, to a proposition for sending him to a greater distance from France. But suddenly the congress was broken up and the situation of Europe entirely changed by the unexpected appearance of Bonaparte once more in France at the head, it is true, of only six hundred men: but with such


a general, and France so discontented; his army increased every moment, and he marched boldly on towards Paris. His landing spread consternation, hopes, and fears, in the capital, and in fact throughout Europe.

## TALE XLVII.

### THE HUNDRED DAYS.

SEVERAL generals were sent with troops to oppose his march, and to take him prisoner; but the recollection of his former victories acted as a talisman, and most of them refused to draw their swords against their former captain: on the contrary they joined, and marched with him triumphantly towards Paris; where he arrived in the evening of the 20<sup>th</sup> of March 1815, twenty days after his landing at Antibes.

The king had already quitted the capital and retired to Ghent, so that Napoleon immediately took possession of the Tuileries, and formed a new administration. He then wrote to the allied monarchs, proposing a peace, on the same footing as the existing one; but they issued a fulminating proclamation, declaring him a traitor, a usurper, and out of the protection of all laws. The duke d'Angoulême had gone to the south of France, where he en-



deanoured to sustain the falling cause of the Bourbons; but he failed, and was obliged to surrender to general Grouchy. Bonaparte ordered him to be liberated and conducted out of the empire. The duchess of Angoulême also placed herself at the head of some troops at Bordeaux, and behaved like a heroine; but though her bravery excited admiration, the cause was abandoned, and she was obliged to leave the country. Bonaparte finding no hopes of conciliating the foreign powers, began vigorous preparations for war. An army of 140,000 men was soon raised, and Napoleon left Paris on the 2<sup>nd</sup> of June to put himself at its head. His ardor was however somewhat damped by the apparent want of confidence on the part of the Legislative Body, which occupied itself with tedious discussions about a new constitution, at the moment when Europe in mass was preparing to pour its armed legions into the heart of the country.

“ To waste the hour of action in dispute ,

“ And calmly plan how freedom's boughs should shoot,

“ When your invader's axe was at the root ! ”

MOORE.

The English and Belgian armies were assembling in the neighbourhood of Brussels; the Prussians were marching towards the same point. The Russians were also advancing, and it became important to Napoleon to begin the

attack before they had time to concentrate their forces. He therefore fell upon the Prussians commanded by Blücher in the neighbourhood of Ligny and St. Amand on the 16<sup>th</sup> of June. The engagement was furious, both armies suffered considerably, but the French gained the victory; the Prussians retreated leaving, it is said, forty pieces of cannon, six colours and a great number of prisoners in the hands of the victors. It is also said that they lost in killed and wounded, more than 20,000 men. Blücher was thrown from his horse during a charge of the French cuirassiers, and they actually rode over him, but he was not recognized.

Napoleon's head quarters were at Fleurus on the 17<sup>th</sup>, the morning after the battle. He sent general Grouchy in pursuit of the Prussians, ordering him to prevent them from joining the English, against whom he himself was marching. Grouchy had with him 36,000 men and 110 pieces of cannon. Napoleon led on 66,000 with 250 pieces. On arriving at a place called Quatre-Bras, where there are four cross-roads, Bonaparte found the English cavalry which Wellington had left to cover his retreat: on seeing the French advance they retired; the artillery pursued them, keeping up a continual fire, till ten o'clock at night. Arrived on the borders of the forest of Soignies, the English



halted, and Napoleon soon discovered that he was in presence of Wellington and the united English and Belgian forces. This was on the 17<sup>th</sup> of June.

He immediately sent word to Grouchy that he should give battle the next day, desiring him to keep the Prussians in check with a part of his corps, and with the other to take the English on flank. The english forces were about 85,000, having behind them the forest, with only one road through it to Brussels in case of defeat; but in other respects their position was favourable. Bonaparte's intention was to cut through the centre of the English; a most tremendous attack commenced, and both armies appeared, by their desperate ardor, to be well aware of the importance of the result. The french artillery launched such a destructive fire upon the english lines, that they found it necessary to retire behind some elevations on the plain. They soon advanced again with reinforcements, and, in their turn, caused some confusion in the french lines. Napoleon viewed the engagement from an eminence near a farm called LA BELLE ALLIANCE, admiring the bravery and devotion of his troops, acknowledging at the same time how well the English fought. The work of carnage continued till about six o'clock in the evening without any decided advantage; but Bonaparte expecting

every moment the arrival of Grouchy on the flank of the English, made sure of the victory; his glass was continually directed to that part; at last an aide-de-camp rode up and told him that a strong body of Prussians were approaching the right wing of the French. He said it was impossible, and that it must be Grouchy's corps. A few minutes however convinced him that it was the Prussians, and that there was no appearance of marshal Grouchy. The English at the same moment called up their reserve of cavalry; the Prussians commenced a terrible cannonade on the french flank, and Wellington sent a brigade of hussars to charge the cavalry; but they could make no impression on the french dragoons and cuirassiers, who stood like a rock, and repelled the charge.

The French were now exposed to the fire of the whole united army of English, Belgians, and Prussians. Grouchy, on whom Bonaparte calculated so much, did not arrive: the Prussians had deceived him by keeping up a fight with a detachment of their army which he took for the main body, and thought he was preventing them from joining the English, at the very moment when they had done so, and were attacking the right wing of the French. This was a skilful manœuvre of the enemy, and a fatal mistake on the part of Grouchy. It was now near eight

o'clock, and while the Prussians were thundering upon the wing, Wellington determined to make a desperate charge upon the centre with nearly all his cavalry. We have already said that the hussars could not make any impression on the cuirassiers; lord Anglesey therefore, who commanded the english horse, called up two regiments named the Life-guards. These corps had never yet seen actual service, but they are composed of the finest and strongest men in England; and mounted on horses so far superior in size and strength to those of the French, that with equal ardour physical force must prevail.

The charge was tremendous; the centre of the French was thrown in disorder, and lord Anglesey almost reached the spot where Bonaparte stood; he however received a ball which broke one of his legs and stopped him. The most dreadful carnage ensued; the cavalry fought man to man, and the allied forces, perceiving confusion in the french lines, pushed on with all their might to increase it, and to prevent them from rallying. The treachery of some officers who had either passed over to the allies, or betrayed the plans of Bonaparte, enabled Wellington and Blucher to counteract them. The imperial guard stood firm amidst the confusion; they were attacked and called on to surrender; their answer was :  
, ' LA GARDE MEURT ET NE SE REND PAS. "

However the lines being broken, the Prussians, English and Belgians advancing on every side, a panic seized some of the young troops who began to fly crying "*saûve qui peut!*"

This completes the confusion; the army becomes disorganized; the brave are borne away by the torrent of cowardly, or treacherous fugitives; the battle is lost, and the fate of France, nay of Europe, is decided.

The English were too much fatigued to pursue the fugitives; therefore the Prussians, who had only sustained the latter part of the fight, and who were much more cruel enemies, gladly undertook the sanguinary task of following and massacreing all that fell into their hands.

This celebrated battle is generally called **THE BATTLE OF WATERLOO**, from a village of that name which is near the plain. It is also spoken of as the battle of **MOUNT ST.-JOHN**, from an elevation so called. It is supposed that more than 60,000 men fell victims in this dreadful conflict; which no doubt would have terminated very differently if Grouchy had arrived instead of the Prussians.

The French army, demoralised by misfortune and treachery, were in full retreat. Napoleon found it impossible to rally them; they were pursued so closely that his carriage fell into the hands of the Prussians near Charleroi, and he was in danger also of being taken. Finding all

efforts useless, he left the command to marshal Soult, and set off for Paris to prevent the bad effects that the news of his defeat might occasion, and to put the capital in a state of defence. The events of the battle were soon known, and the friends of the Bourbons took fresh courage. The house of lords, and that of the commons showed themselves unfavourable to Napoleon, and began to blame him as the cause of the double invasion of France. The allies were once more in full march for Paris. In this situation Bonaparte sent to the chambers a note containing his abdication in favour of his son, whom he styled Napoleon II., proposing to put himself at the head of the army as a simple general, and promising to resign the command as soon as the enemy should be driven out of France. His proposition was however rejected.

Things remained in this state of indecision till the arrival of the enemy at the walls of Paris : no defence was made, but a treaty of capitulation was signed, by virtue of which the allies entered the capital, and the french army retired beyond the Loire.

Napoleon had retired to Malmaison, a short distance from Paris; and finding all was lost for him, he determined to abandon France and retire to America. With this intention he went to Rochefort to embark; but all the ports were so blockaded by the English cruisers that it

was impossible to go out without being recognised, and perhaps taken prisoner; he therefore determined to ask an asylum in England, and for that purpose went on board the english ship of war *Bellerophon*, desiring to be conveyed to that country. He immediately wrote the following letter to the Prince-Regent.

“ Your royal highness ,

“ A victim to the factions which divide my  
“ country, and to the enmity of the great  
“ European powers, my political career is  
“ finished. I come like Themistocles, to seat  
“ myself tranquilly by a british fire-side; I  
“ throw myself under the protection of british  
“ laws, which I claim of your royal  
“ highness, as the most powerful, the most  
“ constant, the most generous of my enemies.

“ NAPOLEON. ”

The letter was confided to general Gourgaud, who went immediately on board an english vessel towards England. He was not however permitted to land, but the letter was sent on to London.

The *Bellerophon* with Bonaparte on board set sail, and soon arrived near the shores of England. The english nation would willingly have received Napoleon, and have offered him

an asylum; but the engagements of the government with the other european powers was an insurmountable obstacle, even if the government itself had been inclined to do it. He was not allowed to disembark, and it was soon decided that he should be transported to St. Helena, an island in the midst of the Atlantic ocean, 2,000 leagues from Europe.

When this determination became known, an attempt was made by some persons at London to cite the english commander who had Napoleon in custody, to produce his prisoner in the court of king's bench, and to shew cause why he should not be set at liberty.

This citation was in virtue of a law in England called *HABEAS CORPUS*, which forbids the imprisonment, or transportation of any one till he has been accused, and has had an opportunity of defending himself in open court. This caused so much sensation that lord Kieth, commander of the Northumberland, a vessel to which Napoleon had been transferred, was obliged to sail immediately, and narrowly escaped the citation.

On the 18<sup>th</sup> of Oct 1815, Bonaparte was landed at St. Helena, which was destined to be the place of his exile, and his tomb.

The history of the world cannot, we think,

offer a more striking lesson to the ambitious; nor a greater example of the instability of human greatness.

## TALE XLVIII.

### THE SECOND RESTORATION.

LET us turn our eyes again to France. The allied forces had once more entered; and taken possession of the capital. Louis XVIII. returned and remounted the throne; a treaty was made between France and the allies, in virtue of which that country was circumscribed to its limits of 1789. Her strongest forts were to be garrisoned by the allied troops, of whom 150,000 were to remain in France during three years. A contribution of 700 millions of francs was imposed upon the nation to pay the expenses of the war. An additional article stipulated that England should receive an indemnification for the confiscations of her merchandise at different times by the government of Napoleon.

Marshal Ney and general Labedoyère were tried and shot for having joined Bonaparte with their troops. Lavalette also, the director of the post office, was condemned to death; but he was delivered from prison by his wife,



who changed clothes with him , and remained in the dungeon while he escaped.

He was assisted in his flight by three english officers who were afterwards arrested and condemned to six months of imprisonment for the part they took in the affair.

The importance of the political events which mark the beginning of the 19<sup>th</sup> century has obliged us to be more circumstantial in our details than the limits of our abridgment would well allow ; but Europe once more at peace, we return to the plain high road.

France having once more the Bourbons on the throne , began to re-establish many of her former institutions. Statues of Henry IV. , Louis XIV. , etc. , were erected in place of those destroyed during the republic. The internal peace of the country was however frequently disturbed by different parties , who thought that the glory and well being of France was compromised by the existing state of things. Its tranquillity was often troubled by those who seek private interest more than public good ; and who , to revenge private quarrels , fear not to sacrifice the national welfare. Thus Avignon , Marseilles and Lyons were disgraced by scenes of blood and assassination. It was at the first of these places that marshal Brune was assassinated in open day , and his body thrown into the Rhone.

A pistol was fired at lord Wellington in the streets of Paris : this is not however so surprising, though nothing can justify assassination, and no one but a *sanguinary coward* will have recourse to it.

On the 30<sup>th</sup> of Sept<sup>r</sup> 1818, a congress was opened at Aix-la-Chapelle to decide on the evacuation of France by the allied troops, which was fixed for the 30<sup>th</sup> of the following November. France, left once more to herself, remained comparatively tranquil; but Paris was disgraced in 1820 by the assassination of the duke de Berri, at the door of the Opera house, which was then in the rue Richelieu, opposite the royal Library.

Shortly after the death of the duke de Berri, his widow the duchess gave birth to a son (2 Sept<sup>r</sup> 1820), who was called Charles-Ferdinand-Marie-Dieudonné d'Artois, duke of Bordeaux.

During this reign a civil war broke out in Spain. France sent an army, commanded by the duke of Angouleme, to the assistance of Ferdinand VII.; the french arms were victorious, and after a short campaign returned to their own country. No other important event marked the reign of Louis XVIII., which terminated by his death on the 16<sup>th</sup> Sept<sup>r</sup> 1824. His remains were conveyed to the cathedral of St. Denis.

Henry- (wipe)

## TALE XLIX.

CHARLES X. (1824).

CHARLES, count of Artois, brother of Louis XVIII., succeeded that monarch on the throne of France. The early part of his reign was not marked by any important event, though it cannot be said to have been quite tranquil; as it was difficult, if not impossible to reconcile the different interests of contending parties; whose intrigues served but to excite, or increase rancour, to sap the foundation of the throne, and to expose their country to the danger of becoming again the theatre of foreign, and domestic war.

While things were in this state, the French consul at Algiers, on the coast of Africa, being at the court of the Dey, received, during an audience, a blow with a fan from that monarch.

If you are not yet acquainted with the Algerines, it is necessary to inform you that they are chiefly pirates and have, during three centuries, committed the greatest depredations upon the vessels and crews of christian countries; seizing the merchandise, and selling the people as slaves. They have even had the bold-

ness to land on the coast of France, and carry into slavery any persons they could take.

They have been at different times attacked, by Charles V., by Louis XIV., and by the English; but without producing any permanent good effect. It was reserved for the French to avenge the injuries of Europe upon them.

An army was sent from Toulon which, after being separated by a violent storm, landed at a short distance, and in a few days rendered themselves masters of the capital, and the immense treasures of the Dey. The French took possession of the territory in the name of Charles X., and it is at this moment (Feb. 1834) a colony of France. The Dey came to Paris and lived there as a private person during some time; after which he went to Italy. There were great rejoicings and illuminations at Paris on account of this victory. The royal family went in grand procession to the cathedral church to return thanks to Heaven; but scarcely had the first impulse of joy subsided to calm satisfactions ere Paris was condemned to see its streets inundated with the blood of its inhabitants, its monarch driven from his throne, and the dynasty once more changed.

On the 25<sup>th</sup> of July 1830 a privy council was held at the Tuileries in which it was represented to the king by the ministers, that the govern-

ment, and the throne itself was in danger; that republican principles were spreading in an alarming manner; that great numbers of the deputies were violent republicans and constantly opposed the march of government. The ministers further represented, that the great instrument which promulgated sedition throughout the country was the periodical press; stating that by its means the electors were corrupted, and consequently they elected for their representatives in parliament, men of republican principles, and that the juries who had to pronounce verdicts on the prosecutions against the editors of different papers, were so contaminated that they published with impunity opinions subversive of all order and government

The king was the more inclined to believe these representations, because a short time before, a majority of the chamber of deputies, consisting of 221 members, had voted an address to him containing very strong remonstrances on the conduct of ministers; the consequence was the prorogation, and afterwards the dissolution of that parliament. On this occasion a very witty pun was circulated among the Parisians. It was as follows: "*Ces pauvres députés qui étaient si francs (SIX FRANCS), les voilà dissous (DIX SOUS).*"

The consequences of those representations

were the celebrated proclamations, or orders in council of the 25<sup>th</sup> of July, by which the liberty of the periodical press was suspended, and the laws relating to the elections of deputies considerably altered.

This blow was so unexpected that on Monday afternoon the 26<sup>th</sup>, all Paris seemed stupefied, all parties were astonished, and the friends of good order and tranquillity began to conceive the most alarming fears. At night some lamps were broken, and the windows of some public offices, by those who avail themselves of such opportunities to commit their depredations. On Tuesday morning, the 27<sup>th</sup>, things began to wear a serious aspect. Several of the newspapers, though the publication was forbidden till they had been submitted to the censor, appeared, containing the proclamations, with the most violent comments upon them, and a declaration of the editors, that they would continue to publish as usual in spite of the government; adding that the Charter was violated, and calling upon the nation to rise in defence of it.

This produced a double effect : it excited the government on one side ; and officers were sent to seize and destroy the presses of those papers. The news spread rapidly through all parts of the town, mobs began to assemble. In the garden of the Palais-Royal, men were

seen mounted on chairs, reading the papers to groups around them, and using the most energetic language to excite them to resistance. The crowds increased continually in the streets, and particularly in the neighbourhood of the Palais-Royal. Their numbers were considerably augmented in consequence of several printers and other establishments discharging their workmen, to the amount of several thousands, declaring they would no more employ them till things were altered. It was now found necessary to send the *gens-d'armes* to clear away the mob; this they endeavoured to do by frequent charges; but the moment the troop returned, the people followed them pouring from every street and alley, crying, *down with the gens-d'armes*, and throwing mud or stones at them. This continued for some time with increasing irritation on both sides: at last some of the mob fell, or were thrown down by the military, and trampled upon by the horses; this caused dreadful cries among the crowd, and a fresh volley of missiles was thrown at the soldiers. Irritation now became almost fury, and the report of fire-arms was heard. It is not known whether the first shot was fired by the people, or by the military, as each accuse the other: however a general cry of "to arms! to arms! we are massacred!" spread through the streets, and almost imme-

diately several gunsmiths's shops were broken open, and their arms distributed among the people. The military posts were attacked, and many of them taken; much skirmishing took place in the streets, and the ears of the peaceable inhabitants were shocked by repeated discharges of musketry; knowing at every discharge that Frenchmen were falling by the hands of Frenchmen, and that the streets of Paris were running with the blood of its citizens. At length night suspended these dreadful scenes, which were however renewed with redoubled and systematic fury early on the morning of wednesday the 28<sup>th</sup>.

The morning of the 28<sup>th</sup>, the struggle between the people and the government became more determined than ever. It appeared as if each party had passed the night in preparation. The capital became a general scene of civil warfare. The flags at the public offices were torn down and trampled under foot, and the ensigns of royalty, such as the arms over the shop-doors, and the word *royal* at the lottery offices disappeared. The ministers had quitted their hotels and retired to the Tuileries. Almost every principal street now became a scene of battle; the dead and wounded were seen being carried off in all directions. The corners of the streets were barricaded; and many of the populace had taken paving stones to the upper stories



of the houses, from which they threw them on the military as they passed; many of whom fell victims to this horrible warfare.

Towards the latter part of this day some marks of indecision were observed among the soldiers of the line, and soon after whole regiments refused to fire on the people, who, in consequence, became more animated, and more confident of success. They now formed themselves into strong bodies; several of the pupils of the Polytechnic school had placed themselves at the head of different detachments, leading them on to the attack. Thus passed wednesday the 28<sup>th</sup>, which was a day of bloodshed from morning till near midnight.

On the morning of thursday the 29<sup>th</sup>, the struggle was renewed at day-break with sanguinary resolution on both sides. Numbers of beautiful trees on the Boulevards were cut down and placed across the road to impede the soldiers. The populace had seized the powder magazines; they had also procured arms at several barracks, and at the depot of St. Thomas d'Aquin.

The soldiers of the line having ceased firing, the situation of the swiss-guard and the royal guard became very critical. They were almost the only troops in Paris who still remained firm to the government, and, while the people were every moment reinforced by numbers

from the faubourgs, the ranks of the guards were perpetually thinned by the continual fire of their assailants.

The Swiss had retrenched themselves in the Louvre, whence they kept up a dreadful fire, and killed great numbers of the populace. It was therefore resolved to attempt a coup-de-main. The palace was attacked at the same moment on three sides, the gates were forced, the mob entered and a dreadful scene of carnage took place.

The Swiss retired to the Tuileries, which was also defended by the royal guard. The people, shortly after the taking of the Louvre, resolved to make a desperate effort on the former palace, which was then the only remaining post of the government; it was attacked with such irresistible fury, that after a short resistance, the duke of Raguse was obliged to retreat with his troops, and leave the Tuileries to the mercy of the populace, who soon entered by doors and windows, and in a few moments, busts, pictures, papers and numerous things were seen flying from the windows; a work of destruction was commenced; but some of the most reasonable among those who had entered begged the others not to disgrace themselves by such unmanly acts, and soon after this a sort of guard was formed to prevent further devastation.

The troops had retired to the bois de Boulogne, where it was expected they would rally, receive reinforcements, and come down again on Paris. But the court being now convinced that the capital was in arms, the king sent word that the proclamations were revoked, and the ministry changed. This proposition came too late; the people had gained the victory; and several members of parliament and other men of influence having joined them (among whom was the celebrated general Lafayette), it was determined that the government should be entirely changed. The king hearing of this offered to abdicate in favour of the Dauphin, but he was told that prince would not be accepted, as he had formed a part of the council whence the *ordonnances* had issued.

During this time a provisional, or temporary government had been formed, and the duke of Orleans was invited to place himself at the head of it, as lieutenant general of the kingdom; which he did. The tri-coloured flag was again adopted as the national standard: it had already been hoisted successively on the different edifices conquered by the people. The royal family, who were at St. Cloud, retired to Versailles, and soon after to Rambouillet; where king Charles, finding there was no hope, either for himself or for the Dauphin, sent to the duke of Orleans an act of abdication.

for himself and the duke of Angoulême, in favour of the duke of Bordeaux.

This act was read by the duke of Orleans to the parliament; but no further notice was taken of it. The members of the family of Charles X. were still at Rambouillet; but it was deemed necessary for the tranquillity of the country that they should quit France. Commissioners were sent to offer them an escort to the frontiers; the late king however would not see them, and when the news of his refusal reached Paris, the populace rose in mass and marched with cannon and all kinds of arms towards Rambouillet. This manifestation decided Charles X. to emigrate. The family left the château on the 4<sup>th</sup> of August 1830; they proceeded, by easy journeys, towards Cherbourg, where they embarked and soon landed in England.

They were received as private persons, and went first to live at Lulworth castle, in Dorsetshire: this was however too near the sea-coast and opposite the shores of France; so they were advised to change, and they went to Holyrood house, near Edinburgh, which had already been the asylum of that unfortunate family, after the revolution of 1789. Charles X., after remaining some time in Scotland, retired with his family to Prague in Bohemia, where they yet reside (December 1833).

The parliament of France then assembled to remodel the constitutional Charter, and, when it was finished, came to the resolution of offering the throne to the duke of Orleans, on condition of his swearing to govern according to the said Charter.

He took the oath in presence of the peers and deputies assembled; and then ascended the throne, taking the title of LOUIS PHILIP I., KING OF THE FRENCH.

## TALE L.

LOUIS-PHILIP I. (1830).

THE ministers of Charles X., knowing that the public mind was furiously excited against them, endeavoured to escape. Three of them succeeded, but the others, viz, the prince de Polignac, MM. de Peyronnet, de Chantelauze, and Guernon de Ranville, were taken and tried before the peers. They were all condemned to perpetual imprisonment, and to pay the expenses of the trial. In addition to which prince Polignac, as having been prime minister, was declared to be an outlaw; that is out of the protection of the law; or to be considered as dead in the eye of the law; by which sentence all right to property is abolish-

ed, the wife is considered a widow, and the children succeed to the estates, etc.

The popular mind was so much irritated against the ministers that, during the trial, which lasted some weeks, a strong military force was necessary to prevent the populace from attacking the Luxembourg, where they were confined during that time.

After condemnation they were taken to the fortress of Vincennes, and thence to Ham in Picardy, where they are still confined (1834).

After this the country went on as quietly as could be expected of a kingdom so recently exposed to the horrors of civil war. However the violent republicans, who wished a government on their own principles, began to be dissatisfied with the moderate measures of Louis-Philip; while, on the other hand, the partisans of the late government declared their enmity to him, and used all their power to thwart the measures of his government. An attempt was even made in June 1832, in which both parties are said to have united their efforts to deprive him of the crown. It was on the 5<sup>th</sup> of June that the funeral of the celebrated general Lamarque gave a pretext for a large assembly of people. A conflict took place between the military and some of the crowd and bore the appearance of another revolution. Our ears were again shocked with continual reports of musketry and can-

non, the streets were again strewed with dead and wounded, particularly in the populous quarters of St. Denis and St. Martin, in which latter street there was scarcely a window left whole; and the fronts of some shops were entirely carried away: one house N° 30 was almost demolished, and the church of St. Merry yet bears marks of the balls.

The insurrection was quelled on the second day, and since that time the capital has remained quiet, though the south of France, and la Vendée have been agitated by party spirit, and open resistance.

In the early part of this year (1832), the duchess of Berri landed in the south with some partisans of the elder branch of the Bourbons; and succeeded in reaching la Vendée. This duchess was the widow of the duke of Berri, who was assassinated at the Opera in 1820, and mother of the duke of Bordeaux, who, before the change of dynasty by the revolution of 1830, was second in succession to the crown of France.

Her presence excited the enthusiasm of the Vendéans, and caused several conflicts. However she was at last traced by the authorities to a house at Nantes, and, after a fruitless search of many hours, was found concealed in a small recess behind a chimney. It is said that the concealment was so well imagined, that

discovery would not have taken place had not some of the gens-d'armes who were left to watch in a room that had been searched, made a large fire in the chimney to warm themselves : the retreat being immediately behind the iron plate of the chimney, became so insupportably hot that, after having endured it almost to suffocation, the duchess, and two gentlemen who were concealed with her, called out that they surrendered. The chimney-plate opened and the captives came forth half roasted. They were immediately taken to prison : the duchess was soon after sent to the citadel of Blaye, near Bordeaux, where she declared herself married to an Italian prince, and in a state of pregnancy. — She was confined till after her accouchement, and then transported on board a french vessel to Naples, her native place.

Before closing our little history, we think it necessary to say a few words concerning some important events which happened at Brussels in the year 1830, and which have been the cause of placing on a new throne erected in Belgium a king related to the royal family of England, and a queen in the person of the eldest daughter of Louis-Philip I., the reigning monarch of France.

Holland and Flanders had been united into one kingdom under the title of the Netherlands,



governed by a prince of the house of Nassau. There existed however an unconquerable jealousy between the Dutch and Flemings, which in August 1830, broke out into open war. A revolt took place at Brussels, and after some sanguinary combats between the king's troops and the people, the latter were victorious. The dutch authorities were driven out, a provisional government was formed and a separation of the two countries demanded.

This, through the determined interference of France and England, was effected though not without difficulty, as the northern powers were jealous of any arrangement which might increase the influence of those two nations. It was however arranged, a new throne was created, and waited only a new king. Another difficulty was to find one to suit all parties interested. The crown was offered to the duke of Nemours, second son of Louis Philip. He did not however accept it. Fresh negotiations were opened and the prince of Saxe-Cobourg was proposed. This prince had formerly married the princess Charlotte of Wales, daughter of George the Fourth of England, and, had she survived her father, she would have succeeded to the crown of that nation, where the salic law does not exist. The prince would then have been king-consort, that is husband of the queen, but without any pretensions to

govern. The princess however died in giving birth to her first child in less than a year after her marriage.

The crown of Belgium being offered to the prince of Saxe-Cobourg, he after some hesitation accepted it under certain conditions; and shortly after married the eldest daughter of Louis-Philip I.

The dispute with Holland was not however quite arranged; the dutch troops still occupied the citadel of Antwerp and refused to surrender it. At last France determined to take it by force for the Belgians. A french army was sent to invest it, and after a siege of several days, in which the soldiers of that nation manifested their usual courage and perseverance, the Dutch were obliged to surrender.

Since that time the european powers are at peace. Long may tranquillity and good understanding exist among them!

" La paix rend un État florissant, riche, illustre;  
" La victoire avec soi ne porte qu'un faux lustre."

CAMPISTRON.

THE END.



**Willoughby.**

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**TABLEAU FIGURATIF**

**DE LA**

**PRONONCIATION ANGLAISE,**

**RÉDUIT**

**EN UNE SEULE FEUILLE.**

**PRIX, COLLÉ SUR CARTE :**

**1 franc.**





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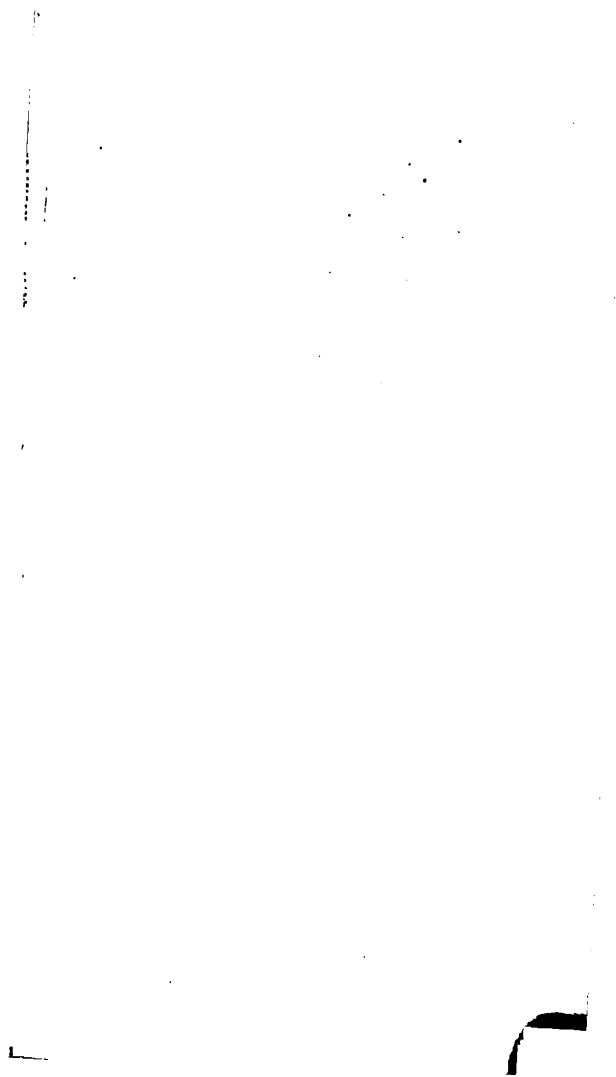
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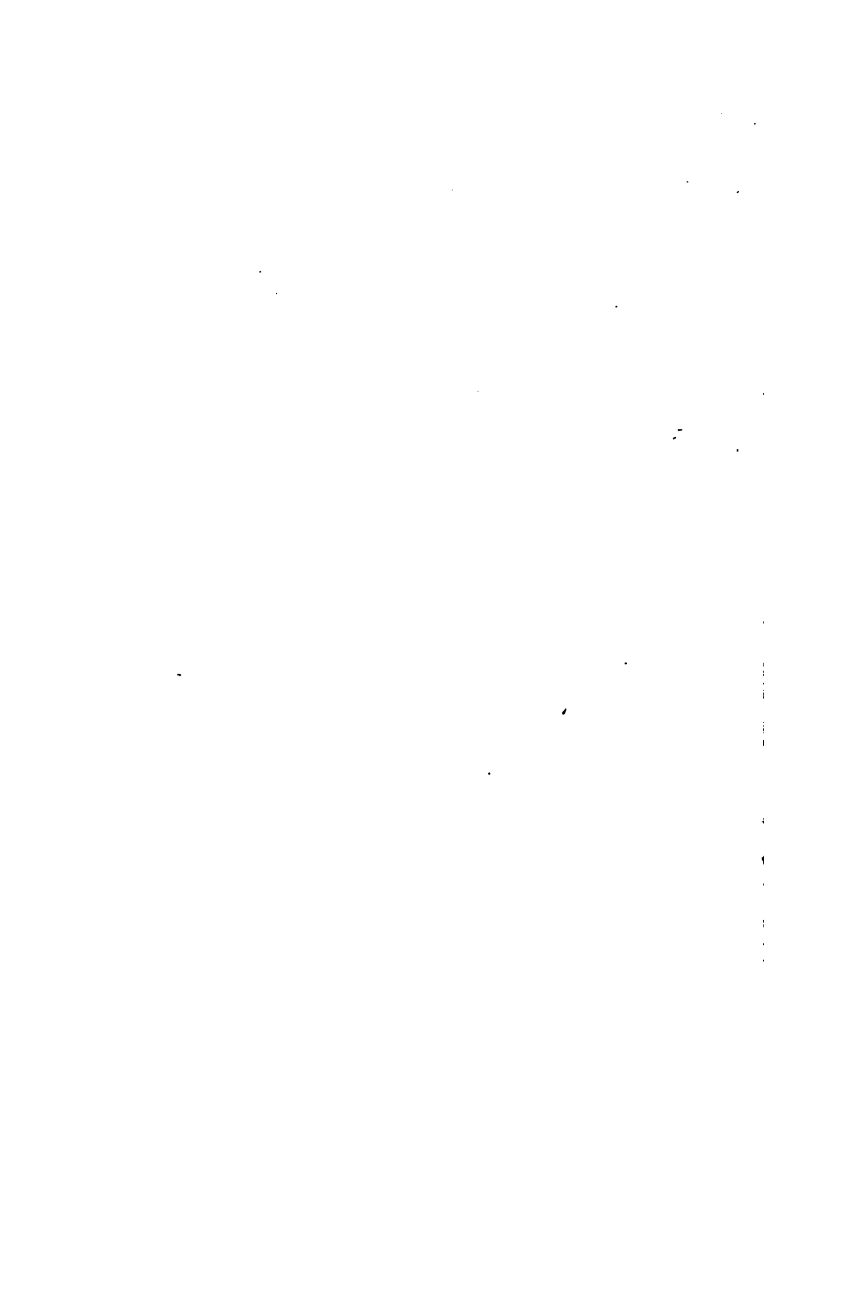












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